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ABSTRACT

These proceedings consist of 28 presentations. They include, in alphabetical order by author, "Data Collection Methods Used to Determine Training Needs of the Organization and the Adult Learner in Business and Industry" (Bart P. Beaudin), "Sex and the Split Brain: Does the Sex of the Mind Matter?" (Anne A. Bowbeer), "Understanding the Anima/Animus or Pursuing the Androgynous Life Style" (Robert D. Boyd, et al.), "Ideologies of Adult Education and the Professions" (Ronald Cervero, et al.), "Phenomenography as a Research Methodology--Applications for Literacy Research" (Roger Allan Clark), "Leisure Activity Participation Frequency and Life Satisfaction among Older Adults: A Function of Household Income and Living Arrangement" (B. Nick Digrino), "Staff Nurse Job Satisfaction as Motivation for Participation in Staff Development Programs" (Lois Sheridan Ellis), "Adult Classroom Locus of Control" (Mary Jane Even), "Participation in Learning Activities by Active Older Adults" (James C. Fisher), "What Can Be Done about Adult Drop Outs?" (Sandra L. Graham), "Regulating Stress in Adults: Implications for Multivariate Research and Practice" (Ronn Johnson), "An Evaluative Study of Student Nurse Learning within Shared and Primary Teaching Models" (Mary Elaine Kiener), "Instructional Models for Older Learners: A Critique of Current Research" (Elizabeth S. Knott), "Grassroots Computer Education: A Study of Computer User Groups" (Laverne Ludden and Roy Weaver), "The Salient Childhood Experiences of Adult High School Non-Completers: The Effect on Their Psychosocial Development" (Larry G. Martin), "Empowerment of Older Adults: Success in Disseminating the Shepherd's Center Model" (Dana C. Maxfield), "A Re-Conceptualization of Adult Resistance to Change" (Allen Menlo), "Examining a Development Intervention in Process with Operators of Small Farms" (Anselmo Mercado and George L. Carter), "Motivation and Rewards of Adults Pursuing Graduate Degrees" (Peter J. Murk, et al.), "Research on Interagency Cooperation amongst Adult Education Providers: The State of the Art" (Michael J. Offerman), "Determining Intentions to Participate in Continuing Education: A Theory of Reasoned Action" (Brandt W. Pryor), "Teaching Parents to Teach English" (William F. Russell), "Accommodating the Adult Undergraduate" (Debra J. Schaal, et al.), "Reading Strategies of Adults Who Are Poor Readers: A Review of Selected Research and Implications for Practice" (James E. Snoddy), "The Subject-Matter of Adult Education: The Phenomenology of Adult Education as Rigorous Human Science" (Sherman M. Stanage), "Continuing Education for Part-Time Faculty in Higher Education: An Agenda for Research" (Thomas K. Thomas), "Adult Educators and Locus of Control in Teaching" (Elizabeth B. Williams), and "Concepts Crucial to Understanding Nonliterate American Adults" (Bertie Dawes Wood). (YLB)

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DATA COLLECTION METHODS USED TO DETERMINE TRAINING NEEDS OF THE ORGANIZATION AND THE ADULT LEARNER IN BUSINESS AND INDUSTRY

by

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"DATA COLLECTION METHODS USED TO DETERMINE TRAINING NEEDS OF THE ORGANIZATION AND THE ADULT LEARNER IN BUSINESS AND INDUSTRY"

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Training within business and industry, in most cases, is based on a systems approach to instruction. Some training programs are initiated on an intuitive assessment based on non-empirical data. Many follow the most recent training "fad", and others are based on sound empirical information. Clarification is needed on what is being done to identify training needs in business and industry.

Determining instructional needs is the first step in the systems approach to instruction (Gagne and Briggs, 1979). Training needs analysis can only be meaningful if accurate and complete information is provided as a baseline. Judging whether baseline information is complete and accurate is best determined by experienced personnel. The data collection methods used by experienced personnel can also be judged as to which method may provide the best information for determining training needs. A number of suggested data collection methods have been identified in the literature.

Being able to identify the data collection methods currently in use to determine training needs will help provide a foundation that will build towards an effective and efficient instructional system. Empirical research identifying the methods presently being used by trainers within business and industry is needed.

THIS STUDY DETERMINED THE DATA COLLECTION METHODS USED BY TRAINERS IN BUSINESS AND INDUSTRY FOR COMPLETING TRAINING NEEDS ANALYSES AND ALSO IDENTIFIED THE DEMOGRAPHIC AND ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS THAT ARE ASSOCIATED WITH THE USE OF SPECIFIC METHODS.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A cross-sectional survey with a single time description was conducted to identify the data collection methods used to determine training needs in business and industry. A study sample of trainers working within business and industry was selected from the membership roster of the Central Ohio Chapter of the American Society for Training and Development. Almost all of the ninety-three respondents had collected training needs information or directed the collection of information during the preceding year.

METHODS OF ANALYSIS

The Statistical Analysis System (SAS) program was used to analyze the data. Initially the SAS descriptive procedures PROC FREQ and PROC MEANS were used. With each item where categorical variables were measured, the FREQ procedure was used (Ray, 1982). The FREQ procedures were used to collect the following kinds of information:

1. Whether the respondent has collected data or supervised the collection of data that have assisted in the design of a training program.
2. Identifying which of a list of data collection methods have been used by their training department during the past year.

3. Identifying the data collection methods used for collecting information concerning a specific job or task.

4. Identifying the data collection methods used for collecting information concerning the organizational needs for training.

5. Identifying the data collection methods used to determine training needs for an individual employee.

6. Selecting methods for different time periods allotted for data collection.

7. Indicating which of the data collection methods are considered most effective for the training department when determining each of the three needs areas.

8. Indicate employer's field of business.

9. Whether the employer has a formally recorded training policy.

10. Whether the training policy states that data be collected for training needs analyses.

11. Whether specific data collection methods are suggested to be used.

12. Where the respondents learned the skills to collect data.

13. Indicate their gender.

14. Specify their highest level of formal education.

The MEANS procedure accumulates means, standard deviations, and other statistics for continuous variables (Ray, 1982). This procedure was used for the remainder of the items in the instrument. That is, for each of the questions that asked the respondent for an indication of the percentage of time each of the chosen methods were used. The respondents also rated each method as to their preference of data collection method. Environmental conditions were measured by having the respondent indicate:

1. The number of employees employed by the entire organization.

2. The number of employees served by the training department.

3. The number of administrative levels that exist between the training department and the Chief Executive Officer.

4. The number of administrative levels between the training department and the level at which final decisions are made to offer a training program.

5. Level of support given to training by top management.

6. Percentage of time allocated for program development spent collecting training needs data.

7. Percentage of requests for data collection that come from outside the training department.

8. Number of years as a trainer.

9. Percentage of working time spent working directly with trainees.

10. The number of hours spent learning the skills necessary to collect data.

11. A rating of their expertise to collect data.

12. The age of the respondent.

A key area for concern for this research is centered on the percent of time specific data collection methods are used within a training department. The mean percent of time each data collection method is used was determined. A problem arose when a few respondents gave high ratings to specific data collection methods. This caused the results to give higher significance to chosen methods than were warranted on an overall inspection. A weighted mean rank for the percent of time each data collection method has been used has been calculated to provide a better representation of what actually exists. The weighted mean rank for the percent of time used was calculated by obtaining the product of the frequency and the mean percent of time used.

The data collected in this research violates the parametric and nonparametric assumptions required for appropriate parametric tests (Siegel, 1956). The main assumption that is violated and disallows both parametric and nonparmetric statistical tests is that observations are not independent. This research has been exploratory in nature and has used the Statistical Analysis System (SAS) to provide frequency distributions and other statistics so as to make sense of the data. The PROC SORT features of SAS have been used extensively to attempt to explain variations in the use of data collection methods by variations in demographic and environmental characteristics.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

CONCLUSION: Management requests were used the highest percentage of time when collecting information to determine all types of training needs including: job or task needs, organizational needs, and individual or person needs. Management requests were never considered the most effective data collection method used by training departments when determining job or task needs, organizational needs, and individual needs.

DISCUSSION: Management requests are unsolicited and solicited suggestions given to the training department by management personnel. Training departments, in most cases, are in a service or support function within the organization and would naturally be responsive to requests made for service. Management requests were ranked in first position for the data collection method used most often and for the highest percentage of time used but DID NOT retain this position for the most effective data collection or the method preferred by the trainers. Management requests were relegated to the second position when reports of training departments' most effective data collection methods were indicated. This may suggest that the training departments within this study sample need to review their role within the organization. To the extent that responding to management requests represents a top down process of data gathering, other methods of data gathering may need to be instigated which will insure a greater balance between employee oriented and management oriented data.

CONCLUSION: There were ten data collection methods identified as being used to collect information to determine training needs. No training departments used all ten methods to collect data.

DISCUSSION: The literature has identified numerous data collection methods that may be used to collect data for determining training needs. The findings of this study suggest that there may be key data collection methods that are used by practitioners a large percentage of the time. For example, both management requests and the Delphi Method were suggested in the literature, but none of the training departments used the Delphi Method.

CONCLUSION: The data collection method identified as being the method used most often by different training departments to collect information to determine job or task needs was not the same method that was used the largest percentage of time to collect the same information. Reviewing records and reports was the data collection method most often used but management requests were used the highest percentage of time.

DISCUSSION: Training departments may find more value in reviewing records and reports but organizational circumstances cause them to use more input from management. It could be the case that the training department is consulted after a decision has been made by management to offer a training program. A training department that is part of the line function will be important and part of the data gathering process before or during the time that a training need is fully identified. Consulting records and reports during the fact finding stage before decision are made can produce valuable input. The largest percentage of training departments agree with this process but reality seems to dictate that training department involvement, for the highest percentage of time, is through management requests.

CONCLUSION: The data collection methods used to collect information to determine organizational training needs were the same methods (approximately) that were identified as being used the highest percentage of time when collecting all organizational needs information. Management requests and reviewing records and reports were ranked in the top two positions while group discussion, questionnaires, observation-interview, and advisory committees shared the remaining four positions.

DISCUSSION: In the private sector, organizations and employee development programs are ultimately aimed at realizing greater profits. What better ways are there to meet that goal than to see what is happening and is needed from all perspectives? Training departments realize that one of the ways to collect data when determining organizational needs is to carefully listen to management requests. Those individuals that are directly involved in the management process can provide a valuable perspective. Organizations usually do not operate in isolation and therefore using the data collection method of reviewing records and reports provides additional information that can result in wiser decisions and ultimately in greater profits.

CONCLUSION: The data collection method most frequently chosen by training departments to collect information when determining individual needs was not the same method that was used the highest percentage of time. Reviewing records and reports was chosen most often by departments while management requests were used the highest percentage of time of all the methods chosen.

DISCUSSION: While perceptions of management concerning individual trainee training needs may be accurate, the reviewing of records and reports can provide a profile of the individual trainee's behavior that could result in indicating training needs.

CONCLUSION: The most favored data collection methods change when an increased amount of time is available or used for collecting information to determine overall training needs. An increase in time used results in training departments more likely using methods designed to gather data from prospective learners themselves.

DISCUSSION: Management requests, as a data collection method, moved down at least three positions in rank order when the time allowed changed from one day, to five days, and then to twenty days. Increasing the length of time allowed broadens the input of information to the needs analysis process. This may indicate that if the design of the information input process can be altered by speeding-up data collection through changing how information is handled; this may result in better data collection. A standard questionnaire could be customized very quickly with the use of a word processor and be ready for administration within hours. The results could in turn be processed using statistical packages on a microcomputer. Information about a specific department and all of its workforce could be stored ahead of time and retrieved with few person-hours, making it more likely that information be gathered from prospective learners themselves even when less time is used.

SEX AND THE SPLIT BRAIN: DOES THE SEX OF THE MIND MATTER?

Anne A. Bowbeer

SEX AND THE SPLIT BRAIN: DOES THE SEX OF THE MIND MATTER?

by Anne A. Bowbeer

> "What is Matter? - Never mind.
> What is Mind? - No matter." (Punch, 1855)

INTRODUCTION

When neurosurgeons of the 1930s split the major pathway between the brain's two hemispheres, they were taking a radical step to control epileptic seizures. To everyone's surprise, the expected changes in behavior, abilities, and personality of their patients did not occur. Not until the research of Sperry and his associates in the 1950s and 60s did scientists begin to understand the functions of each hemisphere and the corpus callosum, that thicket of fibers which, under normal circumstances, joins the two sides of the brain.

Zaidel (cited in Rico & Claggett, 1980) describes three periods of split-brain research, beginning with delineation of roles of the two hemispheres: In right-handed people, the left hemisphere performed verbal, logical, linear tasks, and the right hemisphere performed spatial, constructional tasks. A second period extended the concept of brain asymmetry but was besieged by premature generalizations and misapplication of research data. Growing out of that second period is a state of reevaluation in which the brain's hemispheres are characterized more as process-specific than content-specific.

Simultaneously, while down-playing sex-stereotypical differences in behavior, relatively recent research has produced evidence of a number of measurable sex-related differences in brain anatomy, the senses, handedness, personality, learning style, and performance in various tasks such as problem-solving, spatial perception, etc. Most data appear to point to greater lateral specialization in men than in women.

Among the many difficulties in evaluating split-brain research related to sex differences, four stand out for the adult educator: 1) Most research has not been organized according to sex of the subject; 2) The majority of research on normal (not brain-damaged) subjects has been conducted on children, not adults; 3) Some research has not differentiated the dominant sphere in relation to handedness (e.g., Levy determined that left-handed subjects who write with an inverted hand share the pattern of left-brain linguistic ability and right-brain spatial ability with normal right-handers); 4) There are enormous social and political ramifications of sex-related differences in the brain and its screening and processing of information. Many researchers are women who worry that their findings may be twisted in a sexist way--that less lateral is somehow less intelligent.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Little can be gained here by detailed reiteration of research findings, but a brief list may be helpful. For a comprehensive review, McGlone's 1980 "Sex Differences in Human Brain Asymmetry: A Critical Survey" and its accompanying Open Peer Commentary are especially enlightening. Research since 1980 has produced no real breakthroughs in understanding of brain function, but a wealth of application.

Anatomical studies of the corpus callosum, which joins the cerebral hemispheres, and the planum temporale, which lies on the upper surface of the brain's temporal lobe, point in the direction of hemispheric lateralization of male brains and integration of the hemispheres of female brains. Electroencephalograph readings, biofeedback studies, damaged brain research, and tests of tactile and auditory perception may not always be conclusive, but almost without exception they point in the same direction--hemispheric lateralization in men and integration in women; that is, men's brains serving in a specialist capacity and women's, in a generalist role.

The most nearly universally accepted statement of brain differences related to sex grows out of studies by Maccoby and Jacklin, who have demonstrated to practically everyone's satisfaction that women generally perform better in verbal tasks and men, in spatial ones (1974). Levy's research indicates that women perform verbal tasks in both right and left hemispheres (1983).

McGuinness's research provides an interesting insight into the workings of young minds on spatial tasks:

> When boys and girls are asked to mentally rotate or fold an object, the boys will overwhelmingly outperform girls. "I folded it in my mind" is a typical male response. Girls, when explaining how they perform the same task, are likely to produce elaborate verbal descriptions which, because they are less appropriate to the task, result in frequent errors (Restak, 1979, p. 200).

In the design and implementation of his Adult Intelligence Scale (WAIS) David Wechsler was obliged to drop more than thirty subtests on which either males or females appeared overwhelmingly superior and to include a masculinity-femininity index. Researchers caution that the Porteus Maze, the Embedded Figures Test, and other spatial tests which purport to provide information on impulsivity, field dependence/independence, and other elements of personality should not be used to provide anything other than a measure of spatial perception. Measures of these factors which do not have a spatial component have not yielded sex differences (Berlin & Languis, 1981; Witkin et al., cited in Kinsbourne, 1978). The familiar equation of women with field dependence appears to be flawed.

INFLUENCES ON SEX-RELATED DIFFERENCES

Jacklin (in Wittig & Petersen, 1979) lists six influences on sex-related differences in cognitive functioning: 1) differential brain organization; 2) maturity rate; 3) genetic sex-linkage; 4) hormones; 5) socialization, or sex-role stereotyping; and 6) biased measures of cognitive abilities. Levy and others would add evolution to the list. Some of these explanations are interrelated. Nottebohm (1976) has found a link between sex-related hormones and lateralization in some birds. Most scientists believe that sex hormones can "program" the brain to "organize itself along a male or female pattern" (Restak, 1979, p. 203). It is thought that high levels of the hormone testosterone released in males before birth may slow the growth of the left brain hemisphere, strengthening the relative dominance of the right side and causing left-handedness and learning disabilities. "Depending on the source, there would appear to be at least five times as many boys as girls with 'minimal brain dysfunction,' dyslexia, and cerebral palsy" (Rudel, in Chall & Mirsky, 1978, p. 287).

Research shows that genes may determine which sex hormones have dominance in the brain, and that the influence of sex hormones such as testosterone can be overridden to some extent by environment. "The hormone doesn't prevent behavior from being modified by environmental and social conditions" (Gelman et al., 1981, p. 78).

Waber (1976) has suggested that observed sex differences in the brain are not related so much to gender per se as they are to the slow maturation of males compared to females. She found that early maturers had significantly better verbal scores while late maturers had better spatial scores. Waber believes that lateralization is more pronounced in late maturers.

Levy and other proponents of an evolutionary explanation visualize a scenario in a primitive hunter-gatherer society. For survival, men needed greater visual-spatial skills to hunt and trap, and women needed verbal and other socializing skills to maintain the family in the absence of the men.

Sex-role stereotyping is widely-accepted as at least a partial reason for sex-related brain differences. Burns (1982) denounces the "Math Games" that people play as they stereotype female intelligence. He points to circular thinking, self-fulfilling prophecies, and manipulation of statistics as causative factors in apparently poorer math performance by women. Women sometimes willingly assume the stereotype that they do poorly in math. It may be socially undesirable for a girl to appear too intelligent, or "It's okay if you don't do well in math and science, it's the boys that have to" (Kogelman & Warren, 1978).

Some psychologists are convinced that girls are more verbal than boys because their mothers talk more to daughters than to sons, and that boys have higher spatial ability because of the games they are encouraged to play. One such study (Frisch, 1977) labels balls and blocks as male-role toys and puppets as female-role toys--rather tenuous assumptions!

IMPLICATIONS FOR ADULT EDUCATION

The sex of the mind matters if the differences in the way men and women screen and/or process information--for whatever reason--can point the way to improved instruction and improved learning. If the hemispheres work in process-specific ways that differ depending upon sex as well as upon hemisphere, "the teacher, more than the subject matter, is given new importance....The learner is also given a more active role (Wittrock, in Chall & Mirsky, 1978, p. 101).

Throughout the literature and across disciplines (arts, science, technology, education, etc.) there seems to be a groundswell of interest in applied creativity or creative problem-solving, which demands active shuttling between brain hemispheres (or among brain quadrants, depending upon the model used). Variations employ both the linear, sequential thought processes of the left hemisphere and the holistic, intuitive processes of the right. Rubenstein (1981), a consultant in structures, dynamics, and systems analysis, elaborates on Etioni's process of mixed scanning--a strategy analogous to the function of a weather satellite in which one camera takes broad-angle pictures while the second takes high-precision, high-resolution pictures of small portions of what was scanned by the first.

Rico and Claggett (1981) came to the study of brain research in their quest for understanding of the process of English composition: "We must move back and forth between the polarities, drawing first on one, then the other before the 'edgings and inchings of final form' that Wallace Stevens speaks of are imposed or discovered" (p. 23). Claggett proposes a sequence of steps that purposefully move between hemispheres: Framing, Coloring, Centering, Titling, Shaping, and Clustering (brainstorming in a spatial arrangement in contrast to the linear arrangement of typical brainstorming). Wittrock (in Chall & Mirsky, 1978) suggests greater use of analogies, metaphors, and similes.

Herrmann, long a trainer for General Electric, "rediscovered" the brain as president of an art association in preparation for chairing a panel on creativity. His process for creative problem-solving proceeds through Interest, Preparation, Incubation, Illumination, Verification, and Exploitation. He speaks of individuals "literally" moving back and forth among the "quadrants of the brain spectrum, engaging in whole brain tasks" (Gorovitz, 1982, p. 82). If any one of the quadrants (right cerebral, right limbic, left cerebral, left limbic) is unavailable, Herrmann says, the process tends to fall apart or be greatly "sub-optimized" (p. 83). Herrmann and Eisler (1982) emphasize the importance of the limbic systems in cerebral functioning.

Herrmann suggests other keys to successful workshop or course design: 1) "A little left brain goes a long way"; 2) "It is much easier to move from left to right"; this can be done without giving up any of the left; 3) moving from right to left requires "left-brain control and discipline." Herrmann further suggests: balancing brain dominance in learning groups; augmenting graphics with verbal descriptions, backed up with printed material; assigning analysis roles to participants while viewing films; and introducing linear and sequential input at key points to provide "Road Maps" (Herrmann, 1982).

McCarthy's 4MAT system, which also addresses the whole brain, is based on the work of Kolb. Using Torrance's Your Style of Thinking and Learning to test for hemispheric specialization and Kolb's Learning Style Inventory to test for learning style, McCarthy characterizes four learning types: I. Innovative; II. Analytic; III. Common Sense; and IV. Dynamic. Each of these includes learners which Torrance's test would identify as right, left, and integrated brain dominance; the latter group had 33% girls compared to 15% boys in McCarthy's study. Type II has the highest percentage of left-brain dominance, and Types I and IV have a majority of right-brain dominance.

McCarthy's model (1981) sequences through Experience, Reflection, Conceptualization, and Experimentation, while the teacher-student role and relative activity changes through Discussion, Information, Coaching, and Self-Discovery. The instructor, going "around the circle," should give students reasons, give them facts, let them try, and let them teach themselves and others, McCarthy says, thereby addressing all learning styles without sorting by right and left. The fact that Herrmann differs from Kolb and McCarthy in considering Conceptualization a "right-brain" rather than a "left-brain" function only emphasizes the awkwardness of right left dichotomies.

Research into math anxiety and math failure leads to interest in math learning styles and creative problem-solving because math, especially at higher levels, is not simply a "left-brain" subject (Grow, 1983; Bowbeer, 1982). A Mathematics Diagnostic/Prescriptive Inventory such as that used with success

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to distinguish math learning styles in children at Childrens Hospital Medical Clinic in Boston (Grow, 1983) and activities developed at Lebanon Union High School in Salem, OR (1982) to help discover geometric concepts may also be useful for adults. Vocational instructors at Lebanon urge the use of problems with multiple solutions and alternate solution methods.

Having an integrated brain does not necessarily imply a conscious ability to retrieve and process information with facility, especially not if it is verbalized first. Neither does having a lateralized brain imply parallel development of both sides. Simple practice may help women with spatial tasks; perhaps, men should be encouraged to talk more as they learn. Practice in blocking each hemisphere in turn (Helfeldt, 1983) and in mixed scanning should benefit both men and women. Does the sex of the mind matter? Yes, but the differences are equal.

DIRECTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Reviewers of the split-brain literature have invariably concluded with some variation of the statement, "Research results raise at least as many questions as they answer." Among questions raised by this review are: 1) If hormones play a part, do sex differences decrease or even reverse with aging? (Guttman, cited in Petersen, 1980); 2) What happens when hyperactive children (the majority of whom are males) grow up--are there characteristic gaps in their skills and processes? 3) Does the corpus callosum initiate action on its own? (Samples, cited in MacKinnon, 1981). Sperry, Levy, and others are convinced that the "whole brain is greater than the sum of its parts." 4) How does lateralization translate to learning style? 5) How does learning physically change the brain? (Hill, 1981); 6) How do sex differences vary across cultures? These are only a few of the questions, but biologist Lyall Watson has said, "If the brain were so simple we could understand it, we would be so simple we couldn't" (in Hill, 1981).

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UNDERSTANDING THE ANIMA/ANIMUS OR PURSUING THE ANDROGYNOUS LIFE STYLE:

QUESTION FOR RESEARCH AND PRACTICE

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Understanding the Anima/Animus or Pursuing the Androgynous Life Style: Question for Research and Practice

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Introduction and Problem

Since Carl Jung (1968,1982) first wrote his observations on the anima and animus much has been contributed to the formulation of these concepts. Among the most insightful contributions has been the observation that the anima and the animus go through developmental stages (Neumann 1955,1956; von Franz 1964; Harding 1947) in concurrence with the psychosocial development of the individual. The research reported in this paper tests the developmental stage hypothesis of the anima and animus by the analysis of observations on individuals in a small group. Specifically this research investigates, first, the notion that the anima and animus have stages of development which can be observed in the interactions of a small group, and second, in what ways the anima and animus take active roles in the processes of individuation as observed in the context of an educational setting. A small group has other desireable characteristics as a setting for the study of the anima and animus. It provides a variety of situations where individuals encounter conditions that evoke their anima and animus and where individuals are confronted by the animus and anima aspects of the other members' behavior.

Previous research has shown that groups which remain together over a number of sessions go through phases of development (Tuckman 1965), which are analogous to individual psychosocial development (Boyd 1983,1984). When these researchers focused their attention on individual members concurrently with the group-as-a-whole, they observed that members exhibited a form of regression in which they reworked aspects of earlier psychosocial stages. Thus it seems reasonable to assume that this regression would also involve the ego's earlier transactions with the anima and animus.

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework for this work has been drawn mainly from the works of Erich Neumann (1954a,1954b, 1955, 1956, 1959) which set forth a developmental conceptualization describing in behavioral terms the stages of consciousness through which the feminine and masculine archetypes have progressed. He relates these stages to the history of human consciousness. The anima and animus are located within this conceptualization thus providing points of reference for them both in the context of cultural history and in personality development. The anima and animus must be viewed in the larger scheme of the development of consciousness if they are to be more fully understood as forces in human psychic life. They are located in the collective unconscious before the advent of the ego and are the archetypes of the feminine and masculine respectively that are most immediate to the ego.

The focus of the present inquiry is on the relationships among the anima, the animus and the ego and the transactions which flow from these relationships. The anima is the contrasexual entity to the man's maleness as the animus is the contrasexual entity to the woman's femaleness. Although a strict interpretation of this notion is an oversimplification of psychic relationships and in another manner of looking at it, is an incorrect statement, it does nevertheless portray their basic archetypal heritage.

Jung's (1968) observation that the anima and animus are each composed of three elements has remained the accepted formulation. (1) The first element is derived from the actual experience of the "other" and the "same," as it accumulates over a lifetime of interactions with primary, significant persons, especially, but by no means exclusively, with the parent. (2) The second element comprising the anima and animus as it is played out in human life comes from one's own biologically-based factors and dispositions. Biologically, we are each constituted by characteristics of the opposite sex as well as those of the same sex. The contrasexual traits or characteristics, however, are frequently repressed as a result of socialization into a given socio-historical context. Consequently, they tend to remain unconscious, and to varying degrees, undeveloped. (3) Finally, and most critical to the theory, Jung posits an "innate psychic structure," or alternatively, an anticipatory "aptitude" which allows us to apprehend the nature of the other. This element is derived from the collective unconscious, and so carries a transhistorical, transpersonal quality. It is this archetypal substrata which forms the link between personal biography and cultural origins, especially as reflected in myth, legends, dreams, ritual, and enduring forms of artistic expression.

From our observations of men and women in small groups and upon the analysis of the conceptual issues presented above, the position has been adopted in this study that both the anima and animus exist and play a central role in the psychological life of both men and women. This is in contrast to Jung's original formulation of the anima and animus. Hillman's (1973, 1974) articles explain this view. In brief, the animus exists in the male's psyche because the ego is faced with the task of clarifying his masculine identity - a masculine identity he can not deny because of the reality of his physiology and the innate expectations arising from his masculine psyche. A similar argument holds for women. Such a relationship connecting the ego and the two psychic forces of life is essential for the establishment of identity.

The character attributes of the four stages of anima and animus development are experienced in one of two ways - as arising from within oneself or as being confronted by them in another person. In the former, there is clear ownership of the attribute. However, the individual has no sense that it was consciously planned or conceived. The particular feeling, emotion or affect is experienced as 'that is simply how I feel.' Projection is the other way the anima and animus are experienced. The individual sees a person acting in a manner that takes on much affect and meaning for him or her and accordingly the other is experienced in a highly personal and emotional manner - as a living symbol of a particular character. There is no ownership of the character, but a fascination exhibited by the individual toward the other and which may express either positive or negative qualities.

The following discussion of the four stages of the development of the anima and animus are only brief sketches, provided to give a general picture of the stages, to identify some of the primary qualities only. Personification of certain qualities has been given and care should be taken not to take these literally as they are offered only as a device to highlight certain aspects of these psychic figures. Each stage and character can be linked also with mythology archetypes and with implications for personal relationships and individuation.

This research has used the four developmental stages of the anima and the animus as posited by von Franz (1964). The stages of the development of the anima are characterized by the following words and phrases: stage one, the purely instinctual and biological relations - giving and accepting; stage two, the romantic and aesthetic - joining and inspiring; stage three, bringing forth of life as on a spiritual level - fructifying and creating; stage four, experiencing wisdom and integration. A primary quality is constant in all of these stages for the anima never loses or changes its basic feminine principles of conservation and amplification (in the sense of increasing, enlarging, expanding).

The stages of animus development are characterized by the following words and phrases: stage one, personification of physical power - energizing and exploring; stage two, possessing initiative and capacity for planned action - conquering and mastering; stage three, bringing about by intellectual effort and words - making and inventing; stage four, a uniting with wisdom and meaning. Separation moving toward differentiation are the masculine principles that underly the activity of the animus at each stage of its development.

Design and Methodology

The small group chosen for the study was a self-study group that met for two and one half hour sessions over an eight week period. The group of twelve members included nurses, teachers, social workers and an engineer. The meeting room was equipped with three video cameras which were able to record all members seated around a set of tables forming an octagon. Many studies on phase movement have been based on similar groups and therefore the expectation of phase movement could be reasonably anticipated.

To test the notion that the stages of the anima and animus would be associated with the group phases, the design called for the analysis of an early and a late session, accordingly the second and eighth sessions were selected. The conjecture was tested by looking for falsifiers. Specifically session two was examined to find evidence of the third and fourth stages of the anima and animus, while session eight was analyzed for stages one and two. If, in the case of session two, the third and fourth stages were significantly greater than stages one and two, we must conclude that the conjecture had been falsified. If stages one and two were significantly greater than stages three and four in session eight, the conjecture would be falsified.

Three judges employing the guidelines and descriptors provided in a manual independently coded the video tapes. One judge had been a member of the group, another judge was the non-directive leader, and the third judge was a person who had no prior knowledge of this group but who had had extensive experience in working in small groups. These three perspectives enriched the insights and checked positional biases. Inter-judge reliability studies were made which demonstrated acceptable levels of agreement. The analysis of the video tapes yielded numerical and case study data.

Findings and Discussion

The present study proposed to investigate three questions: (1) the notion that the anima and animus have stages of development and that such stages can be observed in the interactions of small groups; (2) the notion that developmental stages of the anima and animus will correspond to stages of group development; and (3) the proposition that the small group provides for its members a context in which the anima and animus can be encountered as issue, as symbol, and as projection, with corresponding opportunities for growth and learning.

Case material offers support for our first proposition. Raters familiar with the coding procedure were able to independently identify distinct, developmental stages for the anima and animus. Furthermore, raters found that animus and anima behaviors were present in contributions both men and women made to group interaction. That is, in behavior and affect, men and women both displayed significant preoccupation with issues belonging to each of these two constructs. Thus, for example, the polarity which constitutes one aspect of the second stage of animus development is defined in terms of the tension between 'mastering' on the one hand, and 'evading' on the other. The negative aspect here is experienced as avoiding the challenges that need to be mastered if consciousness is to develop, while the positive half of the issue involves a willingness to enlist such challenges in the service of growth. The life of the group was replete with examples of attention to this issue, nor did such attention seem to be the special province of either men or women. Similarly, one aspect of the first stage of anima development may be characterized in terms of the polarity between accepting and rejecting. When, for example, a member of the group who had been a center of controversey during the previous meeting was not present as the next session began, both men and women in the group could be observed to be focused on the issue of rejection/acceptance.

Our second question proposed that the identified stages of anima/us development would correspond to stages of group development. On this point, our conjecture was falsified. Operationally, the method of falsification looks for precisely those phenomena which, if found, would tend to discredit a particular proposition. For this study, the second of nine group sessions was selected to represent an early phase of group development, while the eighth session was used as an example of a later stage. The experimental design called for coders to look for later stage anima and animus behaviors during the second group session and for early stage anima/us behaviors in the group's eighth meeting. No later stage animus/a behavior was observed during the second meeting, thus supporting this half of the conjecture. However, contrary to prediction, early stage animus/anima behavior predominated over a few isolated instances of stage three behavior during the later (eighth) group meeting. Findings here are not unambiguous, however. For example, outcomes may well be related to the way in which 'group development' was operationalized. It is noteworthy that this group remained essentially unresolved regarding their relationship to the group leader. Commentators on group process, such as Slater (1966) and Bennis and Shepard (1956) have defined the leadership issue as an early group phenomenon. If this is true, then the group reported in this study seems to have remained fixed at an earlier level of group maturation. This suggests the possibility that a more fruitful direction for research might be to formulate group phase development according to salient group concern rather than in terms of actual number of meetings.

Our third proposition suggested that the small group provides a context in which the issues posed by the animus or anima can be objectified in interaction with others. Such objectification is understood to offer an important occasion for conscious assimilation, integration, and learning. The group observed here gave ample evidence that this sort of transaction was indeed occurring. For instance, one member, Jane, described in detail her feeling of being the outsider in her family which included adult male children as well as a husband and a father who shared a comraderie from which Jane herself was often excluded. It was consistent with this issue, then, that she would exhibit considerable concern with Peter, the male member of the group who seemed most in jeopardy of being extruded from the group process. Nor is it surprising that her concern should be affectively charged. As the issue was played out in the group, several members raised questions about the amount of energy Jane seemed to invest in supporting Peter. This preoccupation around the anima modality accepting/rejecting surfaced for Jane, as well as for other group members, their own significant ambivalence on this issue. This ambivalence, as prompted by a group event and as enacted within the group, made the matter available for group and individual exploration.

Results of this study lend support to the suggestion that those who study group process might do well to question the usual formulation of male and female group behavior solely in terms set by the practices of the socializing community. Such an approach seems to take little account of the relationship or situational context in which the behavior is played out, nor of the dynamic process by which an individual attempts to integrate or in some way come to terms with aspects of the self. This present study, focusing not as much on traits, but rather interactions, content issues, and differential affect, demonstrates that both men and women can be observed to be preoccupied, often intensely so, with issues commonly associated with the contrasexual, as well as with issues connected with socially-expected, same-sexed behaviors. If group learning is conceived not simply as the acquisition of data about the object world but also the acquiring of new orientations toward that world and toward self and others, then the small instructional group with its complex sets of relationships, transactions and negotiations provides an occasion for just this sort of learning to occur. The educator can profit from understanding that these learning processes do go on in groups alongside more formal curricular activities. If intensely preoccupying, these issues may either enhance or detract from other educational projects.

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IDEOLOGIES OF ADULT EDUCATION AND THE PROFESSIONS

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IDEOLOGIES OF ADULT EDUCATION AND THE PROFESSIONS.

Continuing education has become recognized to an ever increasing extent as having a central role in the education of professionals. Once it was seen as a peripheral addition to the centerpiece of professional preparation, pre-service education; now, leaders of many professional groups see continuing professional education as a constitutive part of a lifelong educational process. The growth of mandatory continuing education requirements for relicensure and recertification represents only the most visible symbol of this perspective transformation. Continuing educators have assumed a role in this new movement based upon their professional expertise in needs assessment, program development, and evaluation. Many continuing educators believe the increasing involvement of adult education with the professions to be an extremely positive development because it means that they have been accepted as experts by the most powerful and elite groups in society.

In spite of these developments, parallel to the critique of the ideology of professionalism, criticism of continuing education's involvement with the professions has emerged from within the field. This criticism has forced continuing educators to look beyond their percieved role as mainly supplying format expertise for the development and implementation of educational programs and also consider the contribution made by adult educators to the power of the professional groups in society. The AEA/USA Task Force on Voluntary Learning (1980) strongly condemned mandatory continuing education for perpetuating "professional autonomy at the expense of consumers" (p. 3). Rockhill (1976) said that continuing educators have a choice:

> We can welcome increased certification requirements as the "gold rush of '76", and provide mandatory continuing education programs...; or we can seek ways of overcoming injustices within the system by 1) developing meaningful checks upon professional control and 2) opposing mandatory continuing education. (p. 9)

Continuing educators hold strong beliefs on both sides of the issue of what their relationship to the professions should be. Some observers argue that continuing educators are improving society by helping professionals become more competent. In this view professions are seen as a positive force within society: by improving the professionals' competence as individuals and increasing the power of the profession the clients will be better served. In contrast, critics claim that continuing professional educators are making society more unequal by contributing to the growth of a professional caste system. This view holds that professions, as currently conceived, are a negative force within society and that strategies and policies that enhance their image, mystique, monopoly and power are, in the long run, harmful to the clients and those segments of society that are less powerful. The debate concerning CPE originates in the differing ideological perspectives of professionalism held by adult educators and their self understanding as educators of individuals or agents for change.

The purpose of this paper is to explore this issue and make the debate concerning adult education and the professions more transparent by offering a framework for the analysis of the ideological viewpoints underlying our practice. For this framework we selected two variables which we believe to be crucial for the understanding of the different ideological viewpoints held by adult educators. These variables are the perspective on the phenomenon of professionalism and the focus of the educational intervention. The framework in Figure 1 categorizes ideological points of view continuing educators may hold regarding the relationship of their work to the professions. Four ideological viewpoints are discerned in a two dimensional matrix. The horizontal dimension defines continuing educators' viewpoints regarding the concept of professionalism. These individual viewpoints are best conceptualized as existing on a continuum with the opposing endpoints representing the "traditional" and the "revisionist" interpretation of professionalism. The vertical dimension represents a continuum of viewpoints taken regarding the appropriate focus of the educational intervention. The endpoints of this continuum are the educational focus on the level of the individual or the focus on the social-structural level.

The framework should be seen as a tool for clarifying ideas rather than classifying people. Thus, although quotations from an author's work are used to illustrate a particular view, it should not be assumed that the author is best represented by this view. Rather than clearly delineated categories, the matrix should be conceptualized as parameters within which the ideological legitimation of the individual educational practice is achieved.

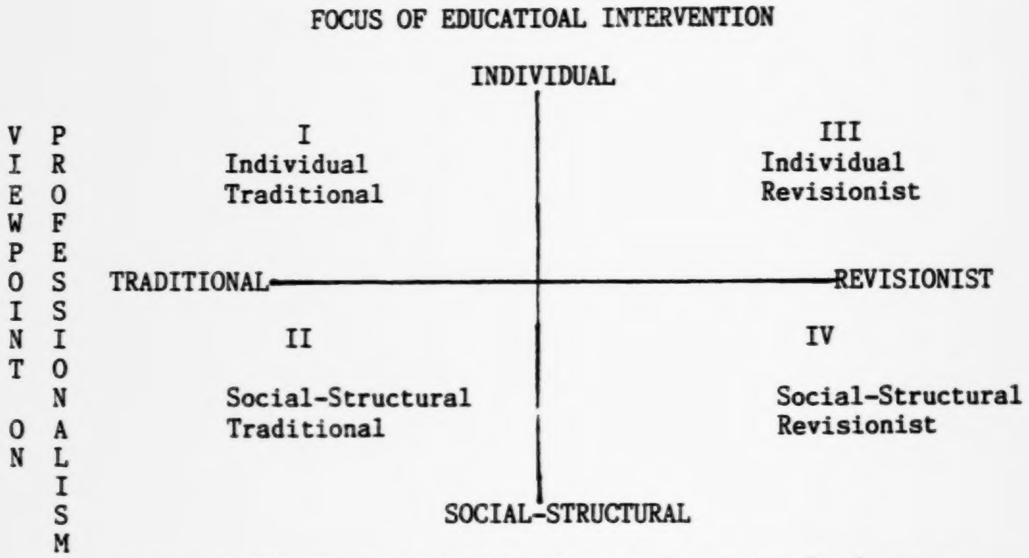
FOCUS OF EDUCATIOAL INTERVENTION
INDIVIDUAL
VIEWPOINT ON PROFESSIONALISM
I
Individual
Traditional
III
Individual
Revisionist
TRADITIONAL
REVISIONIST
II
Social-Structural
Traditional
IV
Social-Structural
Revisionist
SOCIAL-STRUCTURAL

Figure 1. Ideologies of Adult Education and the Professions.

The dimension 'Focus of Educational Intervention' has been defined most clearly by Heaney (1983):

> Most education can be categorized in one of two ways: either it aims to enhance personal growth and the perfection of individual potentials or it seeks to coordinate and unify individual initiatives so that, through collective action, the capacities of a group are increased(p.1).

Continuing educators at both ends of the continuum work, of course, with the individual. The viewpoint which identifies the individual as the appropriate focus for the educational intervention - a psychologically oriented perspective - assumes that a better social structure necessarily follows from educating the individual's consciousness, competence and performance. The social-structural focus - a sociologically oriented perspective - does not see the individual as the end of the educative efforts but considers the individual the means to achieve social-structural improvements. Thus, the educators at the two ends of this continuum differ in what they consider the appropriate focus of their educational interventions: individual change or social-structural change.

The perspective on professionalism is the second dimension by which different ideological views regarding adult educational practice can be discerned. The traditional approach tends to emphasize certain special characteristics which an occupation has to attain in order to deserve to be called a profession. Ritzer (1977) gives the following six characteristics: general, systematic and exclusive knowledge, a norm of autonomy respected by the law and the public, a norm of altruism entitling the professions to special treatment and respect, a norm of authority over clients, a distinctive occupational culture and the recognition by the law and the public that the occupation is a profession.

In the revisionist perspective, the characteristics (offered by the traditionalists) which define what a profession is, are not definitions of occupations but rather "the characteristics of a peculiar form of occupatoional control" (Johnson, p.27). The revisionist perspective considers the professions groups of individuals seeking to improve their occupational and economic status. The most potent strategic weapon used by the professions in the conflict with other groups in society is the traditional ideology of professionalism.

The Four Ideological Viewpoints in Adult Education.

I. Individual, traditional: In this stance, the educator's ultimate goal is to help professionals provide higher quality service to clients. The view of professions is firmly planted in the traditional perspective: an occupation either is or is not a profession -- continuing education does not change this basic categorization. The continuing educator realizes that occupations control their own professionalization process, accept their subservient role helping professionals make decisions about the format (not the content) of their educational activities, and strive to become skilled at the technology of making these decisions:

> It is insufficient for continuing educators to claim a separate occupation or the mandate to perform certain functions. Both mandate and authority must be conferred by outside institutions such as regulating groups, employing agencies, professional associations, and individual consumers. (Lauffer, 1977, p.195)

In his models of practice frameworks, Lauffer (1977) describes as consumers of CPE either the individual learner or the service agency. Notably absent is the occupation as a whole. The basic principle of practice is to identify problems the consumers have and "treat" them through well- planned continuing education. There is no sense that the "problems" to which CPE is the solution are derived from the profession as a whole, from the collective interests of the group.

II. Social-structural, traditional: This viewpoint differs from I since the focus of the educational intervention is conceived at the social-structural level of the profession. Like I, the traditional conception of professionalism is accepted. Examples of these ideas can be found in Cyril O. Houle's book, Continuing Learning in the Professions (1980). Houle's basic premise is that continuing education should be used to aid the professionalization process of occupations. In this viewpoint the continuing educator accepts the ideal of professionalization and works as a full partner with the professionalizing vocations in seeking this ideal:

> A dynamic concept of professionalization offers educators both the opportunity and the challenge to use active principles of learning to help achieve the basic aims of the group with which they work. They become not merely reinforcers of the status quo, as they so often are now, but the colleagues of all who work to further the power and the responsibility of the vocation. They serve but are not subservient. (Houle,1980)

III. Individual, revisionist: As in I, the focus of the educational intervention in this viewpoint is the individual. Yet, because the continuing educators accept the revisionist interpretation of professionalism, the learning needs they identify are entirely different from those identified within viewpoint I. Educators here see a need for a fundamental shift of power, which primarily is held by the professionals in the client/professional relationship. A central belief is that both professionals and clients should be educated to establish a more equal relationship. The typical continuing educator believes that professions are elitist social groups whose knowledge and power must be made less exclusive and shared with clients. The way to achieve this fundamental shift in the conception of professionalism is through changing attitudes through the education of individuals, professionals and clients alike.

Continuing educators should seek to change the situation described by the revisionist interpretation of professional power and monopoly by changing the way individuals understand professonalism. It is assumed that if enough individuals change their attitudes and behaviors, then the presently existing system of professional control will also change. Woll (1984) writes:

> If what ... continuing education as a field has to offer the professionalizing vocations is not about vision, new ways of thought, ... new ways of interpreting ourselves and our world ... then it is a hollow, empty enterprise that should be abandoned. And if it is about critical thought and vision, then it must cherish the place where thought and vision take place, inside each individual human being, where the interactions ... we have with one another and the world are registered and take on meaning...(p. 175)

Continuing educators in this category are not as much concerned about improving professionals' performance but rather about changing their attitudes and their conceptions of the world. They believe that if professionals and consumers alike become more critical of the current problems posed by a professional caste system, then change will follow in the form of a more equitable distribution of knowledge, power, and service.

IV: Social-structural, revisionist: This ideological viewpoint shares with viewpoint III the revisionist understanding of professionalism and the desire to redress the inbalance of power between the professionals, clients and the public. This viewpoint differs from III by locating the problem of inequality in the socio-political structure rather than in the "minds" of the individuals. The focus of the educational intervention must therefore be at the social-structural, not the individual level. Interventions of this type have been termed community activism, community organizing, and liberatory education. The prototypical educator here would view the professional groups as an oppressive class. The educator works with the disenfranchised and oppressed groups and aims to empower these groups through education. In this view continuing educators work with the professions in a way similar to Ralph Nader's work with the auto industry; that is, in an adversarial role. While this viewpoint is similar to II in its emphasis on focusing educational efforts at the social-structural level, it differs dramatically in its identification of the problem. Heaney (1984) provides insight into a central characteristic of this viewpoint:

> Social systems and technologies are not neutral; they can limit freedom in ways that are not directly subject to human volition. Opponents of racism and sexism correctly direct their energies toward systematic rather than attitudinal change ... Systems can operate independently of the persons who appear to guide them. In such cases, it is more important to change the system than to influence the bosses. (p. 117-118)

Working with the individual professional would be the least effective way to solve the problems defined by the majority of those whose views are consistent with this perspective. However, there are small groups in a number of professions that work collectively to change the fundamental relationship between their profession and society. Continuing educators who work with these sub-groups also seek to change the system, albeit by different means than the majority.

Conclusion: This paper has sought to analyze the ideological bases of the current debate about adult education's involvement with the continuing education for the professions. We recognize that any time an analytical framework is used to distinguish conceptions of reality based on ideological tenets, viewpoints are not presented in their full complexity and richness. We hope that continuing educators are willing to accept this limitation which allowed us to bring the issue into clearer focus.We believe that the realization of the importance of the normative dimension of the issue is vital in order to gain a clearer understanding of the debate about CPE and hope that continuig educators, individually and collectively, continue to critically examine the relationship of their work to the professions.

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TITLE: Phenomenography as a Research Methodology —
Applications for Literacy Research

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Phenomenography as a Research Methodology Application for Literacy Research

In spite of extensive programs supported by government funds and by volunteer associations, the problem of illiteracy remains a major concern for the 1980's in both Canada and the United States (Bush, 1983; Kling, 1983; Thomas , 1983; Wellborn, 1982). Why is this so?

In this paper, I will briefly discuss some of the reasons for the persistence of this problem and will show how a phenomenographic research method may help to uncover information which could prove to be useful for designing effective literacy programs in the future.

The Persistent Problem of Literacy

Washington (1983) stated that, in 1983, 2.3 million adults enrolled in the federally funded Adult Education Program. Given that the estimated number of functionally illiterate adults was 23 million (Thomas , 1983), there appears to be a 10% participation rate in such programs; however, Washington further pointed out that a typical dropout rate for ABE programs was 50% which suggests a participation rate as low as 5%. Although a participation rate of 5% is perhaps better than the 1% noted by Griffith and Cervero (1977), it is clear that few undereducated adults are taking advantage of opportunities to eliminate their supposed disadvantage.

Participation — Why a Problem

Hunter and Harman (1979) noted several misapprehensions and unfounded claims concerning literacy. Three of these are particularly pertinent to a discussion of reasons for non-participation.

1. The claim that anyone who becomes literate is automatically better off economically, is better able to find employment, and becomes a better citizen.
2. The equating of illiteracy with inferiority, backwardness, cultural poverty, and low intelligence.
3. The disregard for what individuals and groups themselves need and want within their own social settings and the imposition of programs believed to be "good for them" (p. 15).

To this list I would add a fourth concern which relates to the confusion surrounding the definition of literacy.

The Socio-Economic Status Claim. The claim that anyone who becomes literate is automatically better off socially and economically can be seriously questioned today. Roomkin's 1973 study pointed out just how little improvement there was for ABE students, and Berlin in a recent Ford Foundation study (1983) echoes this when he claims that a number of researchers, " contend that increases in literacy levels are rarely associated with increases in employment, job advancement, personal growth, or economic growth" (p. 12).

Illiteracy and Inferiority. Several recent studies indicate that perhaps this view of iliterate adults is unwarranted. Heisel and Larson (1984) in a study of elderly blacks in Newark, New Jersey found that even though most of those in the study would qualify statistically as being functionally illiterate (the median grade attained was 6th), 75% considered themselves to be average or better readers and only 10-15% had any difficulty functioning in their own milieu. In a study which aimed at employing Tough's interview technique with disadvantaged adults (those with fewer than 12 years of formal education), Sisco (1983) found that people in this group tended to carry out self-directed learning projects at almost the same rate as did those in Tough's original population. In addition, Scribner and Cole (1981) have brought the supposed correlation of literacy and intelligence into question. If these new views are a better reflection of the potential of ABE students, then one might assume that courses based on the assumption of the inferiority of illiterates would miss the mark.

Ignoring the Perceptions of Illiterates. Hunter and Harman (1979) stated that,

> we also need to learn more about the human beings on this end of the spectrum and their needs as they see them, as well as the strengths within their communities that enable them to survive (p. 113).

In this case, they are referring to those most deprived (educationally) groups, but the concern can readily be applied to all potential users of ABE programs. Rigg and Kasemek (1983) comment that too often illiteracy is perceived to be an illness which the illiterate suffer. Consequently, when the illness is diagnosed, a treatment is required. Typically this treatment comes from the teachers and seldom considers the viability of input from the learners. Under such circumstances, they are not surprised that programs generally fail (p. 26).

Definitions of Literacy. Definitions of literacy have almost always suffered from the same problems. That is that literacy is too often perceived to be a unitary (of one kind) and a binary (you have it or you do not) quality (Guthrie and Kirsch, 1984). This is clearly not the case, and subsequent attempts at establishing universal standards of literacy have invariably led to failure.

A further confusion related to the definition of literacy arises from the use of statistical definitions (Clark, 1984). These are definitions which typically equate literacy with a specific number of years of formal education. Experience indicates that there are a number of people who have fewer than five years of education (the Canadian standard for functional literacy) yet who can read and write quite well. Perhaps one of the reasons for the low participation rate in ABE courses is quite simply that, many of those who qualify statistically, do not qualify on the basis of their actual abilities.

What is Needed? Taking a Closer Look at Learners

What appears to be required to make literacy programs better attended and perhaps more effective is information about the illiterates who could be participating. We need to know their perceptions of such things as success in life, important life-skills, and the need for education (especially literacy). "A system geared to the norms of the middle class, is not always the most appropriate vehicle for those of the lower classes" (Thomas, 1983, p. 9).

Phenomenographic Research

Marton (1981) describes a kind of research which aims at description, analysis, and understanding of experiences. He has labelled this approach phenomenography. The ultimate aim of such a research program, he feels, " is to find and systematize forms of thought in terms of which people interpret aspects of reality" (p. 180).

In the process of defining this approach, Marton distinguishes between two perspectives. One is the first-order perspective [typical of phenomenological research] which aims at describing various aspects of the world; the other is the second-order perspective which aims at describing people's experience of various aspects of the world.

One reason for placing greater emphasis on people's perceptions rather than, so called "correct" views or knowledge is that, "whatever an individual feels that he knows, contributes to his actions, beliefs, attitudes, modes of experiencing, etc. (p.

182). Thus knowing how people perceive their world should afford researchers a clearer view of that which directs their actions.

Marton and his associates have found that, " aspects of reality are experienced (or conceptualized) in a relatively limited number of qualitatively different ways" (p. 181). With this in mind, it could be possible to collect perceptions of some aspect of reality, to categorize these according to common elements, and to identify the distribution, over the categories, of the group participating in the study (p. 195). Thus from this base of research, the researcher ends up with both qualitative (categories) and quantitative (distribution) results. This is something which Marton argues is impossible with experimental research. In addition, once categories have appeared, their existence can be tested out (p. 196).

As a caution, Marton points out that it is not possible to categorize individuals unambiguously in terms of their possessing (or not possessing) operatory structures or even conceptions (p. 194) and that, "different conceptions are not necessarily related to differences between individuals but may equally be related to differences within individuals" (p. 187). On the other hand, the sets of categories of perceptions appear to be stable and generalizeable even if individuals move (p. 19). Consequently, it may be possible to identify dominant conceptions at one time or another (p. 187).

Marton feels that this research method is a significant, although not necessarily new, departure from the focus of traditional qualitative research which emphasized the source of variation and not the variation itself (p. 187). This information, in the past, was used to point out the effects of cultural differences; it was not conceived of as being of particular use as a body of knowledge in and of itself. Marton suggests that, since individuals move and change within categories of perceptions depending upon context and content, this thematization of the individual's perceived world, as opposed to the thematization of the individual himself, may be the most stable body of knowledge with which to work.

Thus, using the phenomenographic research approach as a jumping off point, it could be possible to discover the varied conceptions of aspects of reality which exist within a group, and to begin to determine to what extent these perspectives are more or less common at different times and under different circumstances.

Application to Literacy Research. If we accept the proposition that literacy programs could be improved if planners were more aware of the life perspectives if illiterates, then the phenomenographic approach may prove to be a valuable form of research.

Phenomenography, which attempts to thematize the perceived world of individuals, should provide valuable insights into the perspectives of illiterates vis a vis particular aspects of reality which the literate, decision-makers have assumed to be crucially related to the decision to participate in literacy classes or to the decision related to what constitutes reasonable content for literacy programs. It may be that discoveries will validate the kinds of programs that are being offered and will indicate the need for research in other directions or it may be that we will discover that the perspective of the illiterate and the undereducated is vastly different from and hence dissonant with the perspective of the literate decision-makers.

Whatever the result will be, it would appear that phenomenographic research could lead to new and more valid conceptions of the perceived needs of the illiterate sub-culture.

Illiteracy from the Phenomenographic Perspective

Choosing a Population. Within the population of illiterate adults, there exist several sub groups. These can be established according to varying levels of literacy (Powell, 1978) or according to their commitment to becoming literate. For example, there are those who have no intention of becoming literate, those who would but have been afraid to admit their need, and those who have signed up but have not taken courses. There are also groups such as "successfully-coping illiterates" (those who lack literacy but appear to be coping with life) or "elective illiterates" (those who can read but choose not to). For information on "elective illiteracy" see Graves and Kinsley (1983). Any one of these groups would provide an interesting population for a phenomenographic study.

Phrasing Questions. When phrasing questions which will ultimately direct phenomenographic research into the perspectives of illiterates, it will be important to avoid the trap of letting the values of the literate culture influence the choice of questions. For instance, if we assume that literacy is inherently valuable, we might ask questions like, "What is your opinion of the value of literacy for success in life?" This question assumes that the person being interviewed shares the interviewer's perception of the value of literacy. A more appropriate question would be, "How would you describe being successful?" Subsequent to this question, you might ask, "What factors lead to this success?"

Making Sense out of the Findings. Once perspectives on certain aspects of reality have been categorized for one or all of the groups, interesting questions for further analysis could be raised. For instance, one might ask if certain perspectives are more common among specific groups or how these perspectives compare to those of the literate society. It might also be possible to assess whether literacy programs are dissonant with the perspectives of illiterate adults and to assess just what would be required to remove this dissonance if, in fact, having programs is a recognized need.

Conclusions

This brief paper has attempted to point out some of the weaknesses of literacy programs especially related to the lack of information on the perspectives of illiterate adults. It has also attempted to explain a new approach to research (phenomenography) and to show who this approach might be employed to gain new insights into the illiterate perspective. What remains now is for researchers to begin to carry out work in this area so that a new body of knowledge about illiterate persons can be developed, and hopefully new and more valid literacy programs can be devised.

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Leisure Activity Participation Frequency and Life Satisfaction Among Older Adults: A Function of Household Income and Living Arrangement

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Leisure Activity Participation Frequency and Life Satisfaction Among Older Adults: A Function of Household Income and Living Arrangement

Recreation's contribution to well-being is a shared concern among researchers and practitioners. One measure of well-being, life satisfaction, maintains that a person has aged successfully if she feels happy and satisfied with her present and past life. Bultena and Wood (1970), in a study of individuals living in a retirement community, found that persons who were most involved in selected leisure activities had a tendency to exhibit greater satisfaction with life. Bley, Goodman, Dyem and Harel (1972) found that regular participation in "organized" leisure programs for older adults was significantly related to life satisfaction. This descriptive study examined the degree of relationship between life satisfaction and frequency of participation in selected leisure activities. Household income and living arrangement were also examined in relation to life satisfaction and leisure participation patterns.

Method

The study was limited to 106 usable responses, representing the following cross-section of living arrangements: nursing home, independent living retirement home, and a senior citizen apartment complex. All subjects were from the same rural/university community in west central Illinois. The 20 item Life Satisfaction Index A (L.S.I.A.), which is based on neither the activity nor the disengagement theories and is therefore capable of testing either, was utilized. The instrument is an attitude scale developed by Neugarten, Havighurst, and Tobin (1961) which was made up of items selected from existing scales or invented to get four or five items representing each of five life satisfaction components. These components are: zest for life, as opposed to apathy; resolution and fortitude as opposed to resignation; congruence between desired and achieved goals; high physical, psychological and social self concept; and a happy, optimistic mood tone. Data were collected in cooperation with practitioners serving each of the sample frames. Members of the study population were encouraged to take part in the research, but participation was voluntary. An overall response rate of 73 percent was achieved, with response being lowest among nursing home residents (54%). The predominant reason for not participating, as conveyed by nonrespondents, was "lack of time". Due to logistical constraints, the author was unable to adequately characterize apartment dwelling nonrespondents. Based on the relatively supervicial justification for nonparticipation, it was believed that characteristic difference could very well exist between respondents and nonrespondents. Variation in frequency of participation among the three living arrangement groups was measured with analysis of variance. The Student-Newman-Keuls test for significant differences between individual living arrangement categories was used. Pearson r was employed to detect the degree of relationship between life satisfaction and participation frequencies.

Results and Discussion

Subjects ranged from 65 to 98 years of age, with the mean age being slightly over 74. Standardized mean value for the L.S.I.A. was reported to be 12.5, with a standard diviation of 3.6. Although community based respondents appeared to have a slightly higher L.S.I.A. score, there was actually no

Table 1

Living Arrangement According to L.S.I.A., Age and Gender

Living Arrangement	N	L.S.I.A.	Age	Male	Female
Community Based	66	14.79	69.30	19	47
Retirement Center	21	10.62	83.50	4	17
Nursing Home	19	12.63	81.16	3	16

statistical difference in L.S.I.A. scores between males and females. Income status was found to be positively correlated with L.S.I.A. score (r=.47,$P>.01$) (see Table 2). Table 3 summarizes the weekly participation frequencies and associated correlation coefficients when related to L.S.I.A. scores. Television viewing and physical exercise were the only activities that correlated positively with L.S.I.A. scores. However, mean participation frequencies for five of the activities were found to vary significantly among the three living arrangement groups. Nursing home residents watch significantly less (12.3) television than their community based counterparts (15.1) (F=3.65,$P>.01$). Physical exercise, participation in crafts/hobbies, cultural involvement, and local traveling were done to a lesser degree among nursing home residents. In all cases, differences were not significant when compared with those living in the retirement center. However, differences were significant at the .01 level when nursing home respondents were compared with community based respondents. Respondents also indicated their primary reason for partaking in each activity. Personal development, mental and physical, were usually attributed to activities such as reading, physical exercise and craft/hobby activity. Entertainment and enjoyment were frequently listed for the following activities: television viewing, cultural events and local travel. "Being with others" was usually cited as the major reason for visiting, volunteer work, games/cards, and clubs/meetings. These findings suggest a need for greater insight to the social configuration and motivation for activity involvement in order to better understand the recreational antecedents to well-being among older adults.

The marketing of leisure opportunities to older adults must be examined closely. This population is actually representative of several significant market segments. It is obvious that more affluent and independent older adult members of the community reflect the "heavy half" of traditional leisure and noncredit program participation. The results of this study suggest that decentralized services priced within the means of less affluent individuals could significantly curtail premature disengagement. The program potential of public cable television and video taping appears to be expanding. Provided with access, older adults will generally respond favorably to a balanced lifestyle of entertainment and development oriented leisure opportunities.

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Table 2

Household Income According To L.S.I.A.

Income Level	N	L.S.I.A.
No Response	20	10.82
Under $3,000	20	11.30
$3,000 to $5,999	33	12.33
$6,000 to $8,999	9	13.11
$9,000 to $11,999	6	16.21
$12,000 and Over	18	17.00

Table 3

Weekly Participation Frequencies and Pearson r Values When Related to L.S.I.A. Scores

Activity	Hours of Participation	Pearson r
Television Viewing	14.4	.210
Physical Exercise	5.1	.231
Visiting	6.9	.064
Crafts/Hobbies	2.6	.041
Local Travel	1.4	.066
Cultural Events	1.3	-.001
Religious Activity	1.7	.092
Outdoor Work	1.8	-.044
Volunteer Work	2.6	.057
Games/Cards	5.2	-.067
Clubs/Meetings	1.4	-.012
Reading	9.6	.311

STAFF NURSE JOB SATISFACTION AS MOTIVATION FOR PARTICIPATION IN STAFF DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS

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STAFF NURSE JOB SATISFACTION AS MOTIVATION FOR PARTICIPATION IN STAFF DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS

Among personnel working in the health care industry there has been increasing concern and ferment over the quality of care given to patients. The general consensus has been that the quality of care needed to be improved. The Council on Continuing Education of the American Nurses Association has made the following statement: "American Nurses Association and the professional are accountable to the public for monitoring and improving the quality of nursing care" (ANA Standards for Continuing Education in Nursing, 1975, p. 22). In addition, the statement emphasized the importance of 'effective' continuing/ inservice education as a means of maintaining "safe and complete practice" (p. 23). The Joint Commission on Accreditation of Hospitals (1983), require hospitals to plan and schedule nursing inservice programs on a continual basis. Employee attendance at inservice programs must be documented.

The mandate for staff development comes from the American Nurses Association, the Joint Commission on Accreditation of Hospitals, and the public. The assumption, that, as a group, nurses have voluntarily fulfilled the professional expectation to participate in staff development activities has not become a reality. Continuing education through staff development programs in nursing has become necessary to enable nurses to update knowledge in order to maintain professional expertise.

A problem common to staff development directors in any setting has been a lack of attendance at programs unless attendance was mandated. The lack of attendance has been costly. Staff development personnel are paid to develop and present programs. Nurses have been expected to attend for the purpose of acquiring knowledge and skills which would help to assure quality patient care.

There are very few nurses who have argued against staff development, yet the numbers who have participated willingly are limited (Larocco and Palit, 1978). When nurses fail to attend continuing/inservice education offerings, "they were not only NOT motivated to attend but were also motivated to NOT attend" (Bille, 1978). The reason for lack of participation may be known only to the individual, "what matters is what he believes, because that determines how he behaves' (Drucker, 1974, p. 234).

O'Connor (1982) reported that the key to participation was motivation. Motivation has been closely intertwined with behavior and there have been diverse factors affecting the two. One important factor has been the needs of the individual (Holle and Blatchley, 1982). Job satisfaction has been shown to be an important aspect of motivation (Slavitt, 1978). Motivational theories have been applied to the behavior of nurses in the job setting and in staff development activities. The Maslow Needs-Hierarchy theory has been used as as basis for the study of nurse motivation (Douglah, 1970; Hammer, 1977; Boshier, 1977). Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman (1959) initiated another line of research in motivation by proposing a dual-factor need theory based upon the Maslow five-level Needs-Hierarachy model. The herzberg model proposed a set of 'factors' indentified as motivators and hygiene factors.

The relationship between the theories of Maslow and Herzberg was emphasized in the proposal by Herzberg that the attitudes of workers were closely related to needs. The presence or absence of either motivators or hygiene factors does not influence the other and necessarily lead to dissatisfaction (Herzberg, 1959). In the studies of nurse populations using the motivational theory of Maslow and Herzberg, high among identified needs or satisfiers have been staff development, continuing and/or inservice education (Schoen, 1979; O'Connor, 1980; Beach, 1982).

The primary purpose of this study was to identify the relationship between job satisfaction levels as perceived by staff nurses and the levels of motivation for participation in staff development programs. A second purpose was to examine the relationship between the type of educational preparation, area of nursing practice, number of children under twelve years of age living at home, single parent status, size of hospital and years of service as a staff nurse with levels of motivation for participation in staff development programs and with job satisfaction. The motivational theories of Maslow and Herzberg were used as the theoretical basis for the study. Assumptions have been made about the relationship between motivation and job satisfaction, but little empirical evidence of the effect of motivation upon staff nurse participation in staff development programs exists.

The Job Descriptive Index and a three-part questionnaire were distributed to randomly selected staff nurses employed in the seventeen non-federal hospitals located in the Eastern Indiana District of Hospital Nursing Service Administrators. Usable instruments were returned by 186 staff nurses for an eighty-two percent response rate. Thirteen null hypotheses were tested five using the Pearson product-moment (r) correlation and eight using a one-way analysis of variance (F statistic).

The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) (Smith, Kendall, Hulin, 1969) was used to measure job satisfaction. The instrument has had extensive use and validation. According to Smith and Associates (1969), job satisfaction represents the difference between what is expected and what is experienced, in relation to the alternatives available in a given situation. The JDI is intended to measure the affective responses to this difference by measuring attitudes associated with different facets of the job situation. The instrument is an adjective check list which measures five components of job satisfaction: work itself, supervision, people, pay and promotion. A sixth measure, job in general, is included. A total score comprised the job satisfaction level for each participant.

The three-part questionnaire was designed and field tested to determine the perceptions of staff nurses as to participation in staff development programs, frequency of participation and to gather demographic data. The statements in the questionnaire used to determine levels of motivation for participation in staff development programs were based upon seven factor arrays reported by O'Connor (1982) in a study of 843 nurses who participated in continuing education programs. Two statements related to the reasons for participation in staff development were developed for each of the seven factors and randomly arranged. The internal reliability of the fourteen items used to measure the levels of motivation for participation was found to be 0.77 using a Cronbach Coefficient Alpha (α) estimate. A total score for level of motivation for participation was calculated.

The respondent sample consisted of 186 staff nurses employed full time in seventeen hospitals which varied in size from thirty beds to six hundred beds. Forty-eight percent were working in hospitals with one hundred-one to two hundred-fifty beds. The majority of the staff nurses worked in general medical/surgical units. Approximately one-third were working in the various critical care areas of Coronary care, Intensive care or Emergency room.

The educational preparation of the nurses were as follows: thirty-one percent licensed practical, thirty-five percent Associate degree, twenty-three percent hospital diploma and eleven percent Baccalaureate degree nurses. Thirty-seven percent of the respondents were beginning staff nurses with less than five years of hospital nursing experience. Fifteen percent of the group had been employed longer than fifteen years. Forty-eight percent had been working between six and fifteen years.

In response to a question about education beyond the basic nursing program from which they had graduated, sixty-six percent had no additional educational preparation. Only two percent had obtained a baccalaureate degree following basic preparation, such as, an Associate degree nurse obtaining a Baccalaureate degree.

A summary of the parentental and marital status of the respondents showed that twelve percent were single parents and one-half of that number had children under twelve years of age living at home. Seventy-three percent of the respondents were married and one-third of this group had children under twelve years of age living at home.

The first purpose of the study, to examine that relationship between job satisfaction levels and levels of motivation for participation in staff development programs, revealed that job satisfaction was not found to be correlated significantly with motivation for participation in staff development programs. The small correlation found to exist was negative.

The findings relative to the second study purpose produced one significant finding. Single parent status and job satisfaction were found to be positively related at the .05 level of significance. The type of educational preparation, area of nursing practice, number of children under twelve years of age living at home, size of hospital and number of years of service as a staff nurse were not found to be job satisfiers, dissatisfiers, positive motivators or negative motivators for participation in staff development programs at the .05 level of significance.

Although not directly related to the hypotheses of the study, an analysis of response data revealed some interesting findings. In response to the question, "To what degree do you perceive the opportunity to participate in staff development programs to be a job fringe benefit?", only twelve percent considered staff development to be a fringe benefit. Response to a second question, "How often have inservice programs at your hospital met your learning needs?", showed only six percent of the staff nurses felt that their needs were often met. In the additional comments made by the respondents, the two most frequent comments were related to the quality of the programs and the time at which they were offered.

The following conclusions were formulated from the summary of the findings:

1. Job satisfaction is not a motivator for participation in staff development programs.
2. Single parent status, the number of children under twelve years of age living at home, length of employment as a staff nurse, size of hospital and area of nursing practice are not motivators for participation in staff development programs.
3. Single parent status is positively related to job satisfaction.
4. The majority of staff nurse respondents did not perceive the opportunity to participate in staff development programs as a fringe benefit of the job.

Implications for adult education from this study related to staff nurse participation in staff development programs are as follows:

1. Nurse staff development program directors need to re-evaluate the programs being offered staff nurses to determine the extent to which learning and occupational needs are being met.
2. Hospital administrations spend thousands of dollars each year to provide staff development programs. The concept of these

programs as a fringe benefit needs to be enlarged.

3. Nurse staff development program directors need to explore more fully the factors which do motivate staff nurses to participate in staff development programs.
4. Nurse staff development program directors need to more accurately assess the learning needs of all levels of nurse participants: licensed practical nurse, associate degree nurse, hospital diploma nurse and baccalaureate degree nurse in order to motivate nurses to attend the programs.

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Adult Classroom Locus of Control

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Adult Classroom Locus of Control

Background

The instructor of adults may use many tools to determine the preferences, styles, or abilities of the learners. One preference is the degree of instructor control or power which learners prefer while engaging in the instructional interaction. Tough (1982:104-117) describes this phenomenon and notes the instructor control over learner behavior may range from 0% to 100% altering by subject, setting, nature of program/class as well as level of ability and knowledge learners possess. Such potential flexibility demands an instructor determine the level of preferred locus of control for each class.

Recognizing this potential change in preference especially among graduate students (age 22-73 years) at the masters and doctoral levels, an analysis was begun to determine the degree of flexibility and change among graduate students in their locus of control/responsibility.

It began as an instructional analysis to determine the readiness of the students to be self-directed, to take more responsibility for their learning and to determine the match between preferred instructor strategies, and those of each class of students, and grew into a long range analysis.

Used over a 5 year period with 20 class groups and 457 graduate adult students, the results of this analysis have greater value. The findings generated provide a comprehensive view of adult classroom learning preferences, preferred instructor/learner interaction and describes clearly the general readiness of adult students to accept responsibility for learning alone and in groups. 1) It demonstrates highly differentiated preferences by student for greater or lesser responsibility in selected areas. 2) It demonstrates that the concept of "adult learning alone" may not be appropriate in all aspects of a classroom learning experience when that form of learning (i.e. classroom) has been selected by the learners. 3) It demonstrates there is a very viable third choice of a learning responsibility model selected by students: the all teacher-directed learning model and the student-directed learning model gives way to the model in which the concept of mutually/jointly planned learning activities is preferred.

Methods and Results

The Locus of Responsibility test (Copyrighted by Chuck Supple and Jack Fergusen, 1978) was given during the first of 15 class meetings. It measured the students' preferred behavior in the classroom on 12 concerns of instructional practice, e.g. assessing needs, setting goals, evaluating courses, selecting projects, among others. Students selected one of five choices for each item, i.e. 1) teacher directed, 2) more with the teacher, 3) shared or jointly planned, 4) more with the student and 5) all with the student (Likert scale 1 through 5).

The findings, in Table I, indicate that the mean score of the students was 2.67. The difference of means (t-test) between "on-compus" and "off-campus" was not significant (.164). The difference in mean between class size "20 or under" and "over 20" was not significant (.034). Differences of mean between four different courses over the five years was not significant (highest, 1.43), nor were the differences compared by year significant (highest, 1.25). However, there was a change in mean scores. Class size "20 and under" was 2.76 whereas "over 20" was 2.65; off-campus mean score was 2.70 while on-campus was 2.67. Differences between items mean scores were broader.

Table I

Scores by Preferences of 457 Students

	1	2	3	4	5	Mean
1. Re: Goals	25	194	227	12	2	2.63
2. Re: Topics	17	212	199	28	2	2.54
3. Re: Format	41	286	129	3	1	2.23
4. Re: Attendance	79	160	142	54	25	2.55
5. Re: Presentation	19	218	198	12	1	2.41
6. Re: Readings	29	179	179	64	4	2.63
7. Re: Deadlines	56	156	216	28	2	2.49
8. Re: Projects	2	19	235	168	28	3.41
9. Re: Progress	6	94	336	21	2	2.84
10. Re: Grading	30	178	225	22	1	2.53
11. Re: Course Evaluation	4	26	261	143	27	3.38
12. Re: Student Evaluation	29	171	234	17	2	2.52
% of Response	.737	4.142	5.647	1.251	.212	
N =	337	1893	2581	572	97	
					Overall Mean Score	2.67

Discussion

These results should not really be surprising, yet they are to many persons who would like to believe that adult learners wish to be totally self-directed. When adults decide to enter a learning group or class, they do so with a purpose. Tough's early analysis of adults learning projects (1979) found that adults engage in learning in groups only 20% of the time while learning alone in 80% of the time. There is a conscious decision made by an adult to join a group and interact with the instructor which leads to the greater potential that the learners wish the instructor to take at least an equal share in teaching/learning processes. Such a rationale for these findings can be strengthened by Caffallera's research (1984:7-10, 25-26) which questions the meaningfulness of contracting and its role in assisting students to be self-directed learners. Hundreds of students tested found small value in the process. Thus the questions remain: Do students who choose classroom learning with an instructor perceive self-directed learning to be a part of its organization and learning processes? Are classroom processes conducive to self-directed learning? What is the optimal level of control for classroom learning as perceived by the students?

Conclusions

The conclusions reached via this study are that: 1) classroom learning, as measured by locus of control, is not perceived by students to include self-directed processes but rather shared/jointly planned processes; 2) self-directed initiatives by the instructor do not provide appropriate level of classroom control; 3) the optimal level of control by an instructor as perceived by the students is a shared responsibility approximately 55% instructor and 45% student; 4) there is a change or movement in students preference toward making more classroom decisions over the five years of the study, yet these differences are not significant; 5) class size, location of class and difference in courses do not contribute to differences in preferred locus of control by students who have selected a classroom learning experience.

Implications

In a practical way, many teachers, who have felt guilty for not providing more options for self-directed learning, will recognize their perceptions have been legitimized. However, other issues have been raised: Where do we teach adults how to be self-directed? Are graduates typical of all adult learners? Should the locus of control assessment take place at different times in the course? When should self-directed initiatives take place? Is being self-directed a state of mind or a specific instruction and/or learning process? Is the process an outcome of a belief of an instructor or a belief-free process?

This study has generated many questions about instructional theory and practice, but it has also assisted this instructor to select her classroom techniques with a clear rationale. The techniques selected include, among others, mutual planning techniques, problem solving and case analysis techniques in which small and large group interaction takes place. This instructor uses diagnostic tools, needs assessment, and contracting but it is made very clear to the students that these are devices to increase shared/joint decision-making in classroom practices. Those students in need of being more self-directed are encouraged while others are encouraged to share in the group processes, also a needed skill.

The results of each class Locus of Responsibility/Control survey is reported to each class along with the instructor preferences. In this way mutual understanding of intentions and expectations of all class members and the instructor supports the techniques selected via this diagnostic aid. The outcomes over the five years of the study in course, instructor and student evaluation and achievement demonstrate its success.

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PARTICIPATION IN LEARNING ACTIVITIES BY ACTIVE OLDER ADULTS

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PARTICIPATION IN LEARNING ACTIVITIES BY ACTIVE OLDER ADULTS

The Problem

As the older adult population in this country increases both in size and proportion and as societal and individual role changes are thrust upon older persons, the question emerges concerning factors which influence older adults to participate in learning activities which prepare them for these changes.

The Research Project

The purpose of this study was to identify distinguishing characteristics of active older adults who participate in educational activities and to measure factors which motivated their participation. The dependent variables were participation and nonparticipation; independent variables were educational attainment, anomia, life satisfaction, and certain other factors such as self-directed learning, program awareness, learning activities, learning desires, and factors which motivate or inhibit participation.

A survey instrument was used with 786 active older adults at 8 gathering places for seniors in Milwaukee County, Wisconsin. An active older adult was defined as a person 55 years of age or above who was a participant in a program designed for older adults.

In order to control for age, sex, marital status, and socio-economic status, participants in educational activities were matched with non-participants on the basis of these demographic variables, resulting in a group of 211 participants matched with a group of 211 nonparticipants on the basis of identical values describing the age, sex, marital status, and socio-economic status of the individual subjects. At the beginning of the data analysis, each member of the participant group differed from a corresponding member of the nonparticipant group in their participation in educational activities.

Various measures were used to distinguish participants from nonparticipants, including the Srole Anomia Scale (1956), the Life Satisfaction Index A (Neugarten, Havighurst, and Tobin, 1961), and the Fisher Self-Directed Learning Index (1979, p. 79). Methods of analysis included descriptive statistics, correlation coefficients, T-tests, and single and multiple regression analysis.

The Findings

The participants differed statistically from the nonparticipants on each of the independent variables except life satisfaction; differences were measured in level of educational attainment, anomia, and on such learning-related factors as propensity to engage in self-directed learning, awareness of learning needs, and awareness of sites where educational activities were available.

Insert Table 1 about here

Subjects were also aware of obstacles which frequently inhibited participation. Those most frequently listed were lack of transportation, classes held at night, notion that people can learn by themselves, uninteresting courses, high cost of courses, lack of time, and the belief that older people don't need to learn. Other obstacles suggested include apathy, health problems or physical handicaps, and activities which are held in dangerous or unsafe areas. Participants were much more aware of these potentially inhibiting obstacles than were nonparticipants.

In assessing the relative influence of these independent variables on the dependent variable, participation, it was found that the ability to list places where educational activities were available and the propensity of the subjects to engage in self-directed learning activities accounted for 28.7% of the total variance within the dependent variable. Level of educational attainment accounted for an additional .26%, topics for learning, .22%, and anomia and life satisfaction together accounted for .27%. These independent variables together accounted for 29.45% of the variance in the dependent variable.

An analysis of the subject matter studied or about which older adults desired to learn revealed that 143 different topical areas were listed. The content ranged from academics to crafts and from courses with a clear utilitarian value to courses taken for the enjoyment of it. When analyzed according to the McClusky paradigm of educational needs for older adults, most of the educational activities in which subjects participated and most of the topics for future learning may be described as responding to expressive needs.

Insert Table 2 about here

Subjects gave the following reasons for their participation in learning activities: 83.9% indicated they enjoyed being with other people; 79.6% liked the challenge of learning; and 68.2% were attracted by the usefulness of the subject matter.

Application to Practice

On the basis of these findings, one may conclude that while participation is somewhat related to prior educational experiences, other variables such as awareness of the availability of educational programs and propensity to engage in self-directed learning activities are much more powerful influences. Both of these stronger variables are susceptible to direct or indirect manipulation by educators with older adults at the program level. For example, these findings underline the need for effective promotion of courses which are available. The similarity between the list of educational activities in which participants were engaged and the topics about which persons wished to learn indicate that for this subject population, the universe of learning possibilities was somewhat limited by the content of the educational programs with which the subjects were familiar. The influence of the propensity to engage in self-directed learning activities suggests the need for programs which capitalize on the employment of self-directed learning activities.

Two other areas which are within the purview of the practitioner include the development of programs which respond to social needs and develop skills in building dependable relationships with others and which broaden the awareness of potential learning needs of individuals. One may conjecture whether older adults have a low awareness of their needs which may be addressed through learning activities, or whether they are unable to distinguish learning needs from a range of other needs which they experience.

These findings also present the need of these subjects for a broadened awareness of educational opportunities which are available to them. On occasion, the low level of participation by older adults in educational activities has been attributed to age or lack of prior educational experiences. While these research findings generally support those conclusions, the findings of this study also suggest that many of the differences between participants and nonparticipants may be considered in the planning and implementation of educational programs for older adults. Instead of pointing the adult educator to a better educated older adult clientele, this study affirms the importance of the adult educator in using the characteristics which distinguish participants from nonparticipants as the basis for future program development.

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TABLE 1
A Comparison between Participants and Nonparticipants on Selected Dependent Variables

Variable	Scores	
	Participant	Nonparticipant
Educational Attainment	12+ grade	11+ grade *
Anomia (Srole Anomia Scale)	2.18	2.59 *
Life Satisfaction Index A	15.08	14.52
Self-Directed Learning	4.91	4.38 *
Awareness of learning needs	0.63	0.26 *
Awareness of sites where educational activities are available	1.49	0.41 *
Awareness of factors inhibiting participation (total number of responses)	378	273 *

* Indicates statistic significant at the .01 level.

TABLE 2
Analysis Of Subject Matter and Learning Need According To Function

Educational Needs	Number of current educational activities identified	Number of topics for future learning identified
Coping	36 (07.5%)	53 (18.3%)
Expressive	438 (91.3%)	229 (79.2%)
Contributive	0	0
Influence	6 (01.2%)	7 (02.5%)
Transcendence	0	0

WHAT CAN BE DONE ABOUT ADULT DROP OUTS?

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WHAT CAN BE DONE ABOUT ADULT DROP OUTS?

Introduction

In his recent book, Huey B. Long (1983) refers to the statement that "attrition is among the most severe problems confronting adult education" (p. 140). This statement, attributed to John Niemi (1976), would be refuted by few, if any, adult educators. The volume of past and recent research, as well as the distinguished names working on this problem, such as Boshier, Cunningham, Darkenwald, and others would seem to reflect this concern. As Long (1983) points out, the problem is a significant one for both practical and theoretical reasons. Among the practical, attrition has implications for the use of resources and the effectiveness of the group learning situation. The questions about motivation that attrition raises have theoretical implications that could affect the field of adult education.

There are, as usual, many ways to approach this problem of attrition in adult education activities. This review focuses on the who, why, and what of attrition. Who drops out? Why do they drop out? What can be done to prevent drop outs? While not denying the importance of learning who tends to drop out and why anyone drops out, this author seeks, above all, to find out what can be done about attrition in adult education activities. Reviewing over fifty documents published since Verner & Davis' (1964) study of the literature has yielded almost none that considers the drop out problem from the point of view of the instructor who would like to do something in the classroom to increase the retention of adult students.

For the purposes of this review, the following definitions are offered. A drop out will be defined as one who discontinues an educational activity before the end of such activity. A persister is the opposite of a drop out. An adult is defined as any individual who was admitted to one of the programs studied, or one who was considered to be an adult by any of the studies reviewed in this paper.

Who Drops out?

The vast majority of literature reviewed by this author deals with who drops out of adult educational activities. More than thirty-five sources have attempted to predict who will not persist. For the sake of organization and clarity, this body of research will be classified into three categories: studies attempting to discover pertinent psychological and intellectual variables, studies researching socio-demographical variables, and those studying reactions to the instructional environment. Any attempt to classify the following studies according to types of variables will fail to render totally discrete categories. With this caveat, these articles will be divided as logically as possible.

The psychological variables studied include motivational variables, attitudinal variables, intellectual or achievement variables, and learning preference variables. Persistence is tied to the following types of motivation: external goals, Londoner (1972); growth vs. deficiency motives, Boshier (1973), immediate satisfaction vs. delayed gratification, Cochran (1967);

men needing affiliation and women needing abasement, Scharles (1966); and those seeking a high school diploma, Golner (1980).

Attitudes towards themselves and towards others have also been studied in an attempt to predict drop outs. Wilson (1980) found that persisters scored higher in self-control, endurance, and deference while drops outs scored higher in autonomy, change and succorance. Testing self concept on variables about identity, and social, ethical, and personal attitudes, Wingate (1979) found that there were significant differences between drop outs and persisters, and that drop outs had significantly poorer self-concepts. Boshier (1973) measured the differences in congruence between oneself and oneself ideally, oneself and others, and oneself and the institution. He determined that drop outs were more dissatisfied with themselves, with other students, and with the instructor than were persisters.

Attitudes toward things can also influence attrition. Hurkamp (1969) found significant differences in attitudes toward the course, competing factors, home and family, and education. A higher expectation for the program in terms of its use and anticipated benefits was held by persisters in Reed's dissertation (1980). Golner (1980) found that attitudes toward non-completion differed. Drop outs felt that others might drop out because of dislike of the course or teacher while persisters believed that others might drop out because of personal or family reasons.

Intellectual and achievement variables have also been mentioned in recent literature. As expected, most studies found that better prepared, higher achieving, more intelligent students tend to drop out less (McCloy, 1979); (Sainty, 1971); (Bennett, 1968); (Wingate, 1979); and (Wilson, 1979). Fewer studies concentrate on learning preference as a discriminator between drop outs and persisters.Plummer (1981) reports that persisters are more satisfied with the learning environment, advocating a mixture of andragogy and pedagogy. McCloy (1979) found a tendency for drop outs to view the help and concern that they had received from college personnel differently.

Any conceivable socio-demographic variable that can be measured has probably been tested by some investigator. A cursory coverage of this overdone area yields conflicting information. While aging was positively correlated with persistence in five studies, it was shown insignificant in three others. Marital status was not significant Richardson (1981) and Ulmer & Verner (1965). Other common factors that have been treated are income, sex, father's education, and veteran status. That racial and ethnic minority status is linked with attrition was a fact shown by Hall (1975). When Darkenwald (1975) studied this variable, at first it seemed obvious that race, in this case Black, was significant. Researching the same situation further, he concluded that teacher behavior was at least partly responsible for this behavior. Treating life-relevant subjects in class reduced the disparity between races. Darkenwald feels that this line of research should be tested further for generalizability.

Very few studies measure reactions to the instructional environment. Perhaps it is unacceptable suggest that the course content, instructor, or educational milieu is partly responsible for the problem of attrition. Boshier (1973) begins to see the possibility that this area has been overlooked long enough. Two recent dissertation address reactions to the instructional environment. Plummer (1981) reports that persisters are more satisfied with the learning environment. Golner (1980) states that style of learning influences preferences and attrition. Plummer agrees stating that drop outs desired strong direction from their instructors while being involved in the decision making processes of the course.

Since Verner & Davis (1964) a great deal of research has been done to determine who drops out of adult educational activities. Students with external, immediate goals who enroll for deficiency reasons seem more likely to drop out. Those with poor attitudes towards themselves, other people, and things are also high risk. Poorly prepared or less intelligent students drop out more often as do those who are dissatisfied with the learning environment. Younger students seem to leave sooner and racial status may affect attrition. Further research on who drops out needs to be correlated with these studies and others done outside the field of adult education. It should be built on these articles and expanded, not just merely repeated.

Why do they drop out?

Compared to the amount of research on who drops out, the research on why an adult drops out of an educational activity is skimpy. Two main reasons for this come to mind. First, data about who drops out is relatively easy to collect, have access to, and compare. Second, and probably more relevant, is the fact that reasons reported by students for dropping out are not necessarily the real reasons or they are the last straw instead of the main reason for attrition.

Many personal and external (out of the classroom) reasons have been reported by drop outs to explain why they left. Hall (1980) reports that financial problems and finding time to study influenced attrition. Del Din (1980) lists job and study conflicts, studying too time consuming, home responsibilities, personal, and money problems as those reported by drop outs. Illness, babysitting, transportation, changes in job shifts, and the "blues" are reported by Meyer (1974). Mezirow, Darkenwald, and Knox (1975) also report a variety of external pressures on adult students that influence attrition. Hawkins dissertation (1968) states that the main reasons for dropping out were personal in nature. Roger Boshier contends that the reasons for dropping out "stem from an interaction of internal psychological and external environmental variables" (1973, p. 256). In his interesting paper, Golner (1980) asked students why they thought that others might drop out. Persisters cited personal reasons as important, while drop outs (subsequent) suggested dislike of the teacher or course as possible causes. Even with a technique as creative as this, it is difficult to determine the validity of the responses.

There are few studies that are bold enough to imply that classroom factors or institutional factors may contribute to attrition. To put the onus of blame on the instructor is difficult for professional educators; to blame the institution that employs one is even more difficult. This is an area, however, that needs further exploration beyond suggestions for more support personnel to work with students and convenient scheduling.

What can be done to prevent drop outs?

Drawing from the studies that discussed the "who" and "why" of attrition, several implications for practice can be made. Since course-related reasons count when studying attrition (Boshier, 1972), the following list of variables should be considered when trying to diminish attrition in the adult classroom:

1. Schedule the course for a short duration of weeks (Anderson & Darkenwald, 1979), and for only one or two classes per week (Darkenwald, 1981).
2. Begin any intervention early in the program (Coffey, 1976).
3. Address the needs and goals of the participants (Lam & Wong, 1974).
4. The instructor should treat the students as equals (Davis, 1966) and should be approachable (Lam & Wong, 1974).
5. The instructor should provide for informal interaction between the instructor and the student, and between students (Lam & Wong, 1974), (Boshier, 1973).
6. Provide for strong direction and support from the instructor (Plummer, 1981), (Wilson, 1980). and
7. Provide for student involvement in decision making (Plummer, 1981), (Hampton, 1982).

Research that attempts to scientifically relate a treatment to reduction of attrition is practically non-existent. This reviewer found only three studies that come close to accomplishing this task. Robert Schlimgen (1982) attempted to relate the self-perception of ABE students and their persistence to completion of a career assessment process. While self-perception rose, persistence did not significantly increase.

While checking Boshier's Educational Participation Scale and Rotter's Locus of Control Scale on adult learners, Deborah Wilson (1979) found out that those students who had taken a Life Coping Skills Course were more likely to complete academic courses than those who did not take the LCSC.

Janet Welsh-Hill's dissertation (1981) on the effects of a short-term career development intervention on the locus of control of ABE students yielded significant findings about attrition. Hill (1981) used Rotter I-E Scale scores, observed and self-reported behaviors to measure the effects of the treatment on locus of control. Sixty-seven persons completed the process and served as the sample for this study. No significant results on Rotter's scale resulted from this intervention. An observed behavior, used as an additional measure of locus of control, was persistence. There was a significant difference between the persisters and the drop outs. Those who had completed the career intervention course persisted at a significantly higher rate (.02). Apparantly, the activities of this intervention were closely related to the students' goals and every-day needs, and this may be why less attrition was experienced.

Discussion

The state of the research has grown and improved since Verner & Davis (1964). The number of research studies on the subject has expanded partly thanks to the leadership of Roger Boshier and Gordon Darkenwald. The number of dissertations in the DAI on attritions is impressive. Research techniques have improved during the same time span. There are more multi-variate statistical techniques and less think papers being done.

The concentration of research on who drops out is unfortunate in this reviewer's opinion. Further studies of the same variables would be redundant. Some follow up on psychological variable could be undertaken, as long as it builds on former research, such as the studies presented here.

Improved methods are needed to elicit valid responses to why an adult drops out of educational activities. Clues as to where to begin could be found from Golner (1980). More information must be gained about what is done in the classroom and in the institution that affects attrition. One must not be afraid to look inward to make progress toward solving the problem of attrition.

Further research on attrition in the field of adult education should concentrate on what can be done about drop outs rather than who they are and why they dropped out. Experienced instructor's intuition, comprehensive literature reviews on the problem in adult education and in related fields should be done and correlated, and programs of research undertaken by institutions or groups interested in and affected by attrition will aid adult educators in their attempt to address the problem of what can be done about the adult drop out.

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Regulating Stress in Adults: implications for multivariate research and practice

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Regulating Stress in Adults: implications for multivariate research and practice

The theory of lifelong learning is a fundamental premise for all education. This premise is based on observations made in a world of on-going changes. Changes in high technology necessitate a continuous need for adults to further improve their education skills (Knowles, 1980). An adult educator's role often includes motivating individuals to seek needed skills and maintain their training experiences once initiated. However, adults have a multitude of stressors which impinge upon them continuously and interfere with their ability to initiate or maintain training.

STRESS

The stressors impinging upon adults originate from environmental demands, work, family, economic, psychological and social factors. These stressors interact with one another and can cause different reactions in each adult experiencing them. For example, Joan is 29, works in a factory, and is a single parent. She finds her days exhausting. Her shift starts at 7:00 a.m., so she must be up by 5:30. She allows her son, age 12, to sleep later, but calls to wake him when she gets to work. She attends night school twice a week, occasionally she will receive a call from her son about some minor emergency, even when he doesn't call, she worries about how he's doing. While her foreman at work understands her dilemma, she is very concerned about her performance on the job. She has spoken to her on several occasions about her poor job performance. Joan is experiencing tension headaches and has difficulty falling asleep at night. Joan's situation illustrates the range of stressors an adult will attempt to balance. The stressors compete with each other. Consequently, they have an overwhelming effect on an individual,interfering with family life and job performance. Over the past ten years there has been increasing attention paid to the effects of work and family stressors.

As mentioned previously, stressors are experienced differently by adults. Therefore an adult educator's awareness of the effects of stress may be an important factor in motivating adults to maintain their continuing education efforts. The awareness starts with an understanding that adult development is an "act of transformation" (Gould, 1978). Part of the transformation might include recognizing the fact that adults are often confronted with contradictory realities. Joan's situation illustrates a person who wants to provide a better life for her son and self by working a demanding job and attending night school. The contradiction lies in the sacrifice of time with her son she must make in order to financially provide for him.

Multivariate Research Implications

Laux and Vossel (1982) indicate "there is no single paradigm in stress and coping research (p.203)." In addition to this there is certainly no one on which all authors in the field of stress research concur. One criticism often mentioned is the limited number of stressors assessed and the limited number of measures used to assess the impact of the stressors. Laux (1976) recommends an appropriate method of addressing the previously mentioned criticisms. This method would allow the analysis of at least two dissimilar stress events and at least two different measures of stress. Laux (1976) calls this approach the multitrait-multimethod strategy in stress research. In practical multivariate research the multitrait-multimethod strategy could be readily used in many investigations.

A proposed investigation could be conducted which would examine the adult learner and stress. A proposed investigation could use a causal comparative research design. This design would allow the investigator to assess the causes, or reasons for the effects of stress in certain adult populations. For example, one investigation might examine whether differences exist between single-parents and non-single parents involved in a continuing education program on several stress variables. Some of these stress variables might include health ,depression, and work satisfaction. Depending on how the hypotheses are stated and other pertinent research questions, the data yielded from this proposed investigation might be subjected to multivariate statistical analysis. Multivariate statistical procedures allow more comprehensive questions to be addressed. Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) is an example of a multivariate statistical procedure.

Johnson, Newman, and Frederickson (1984) describe MANOVA as a multivariate statistical procedure which allows a researcher to analyze multiple dependent variables and multiple independent variables. An assumption normally made with MANOVA is the intercorrelations between all dependent variables equals zero. MANOVA adds the sums of F ratios yielded by ANOVAs used to separate dependent variables. Johnson (1984) using a causal comparative design demonstrated how MANOVA could be applied in one adult population. Two elderly groups (one cardiac and the other non-cardiac) were allowed to assess the impact of the multivariate construct of family contact. Using MANOVA the data yielded significant differences between the cardiac elderly and non-cardiac elderly on the multivariate construct of family contact. The paradigm provided thru Johnson's (1984) investigation could be readily applied to adult learners involved in continuing education programs.

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Stress Regulation Practice

A direct application of research-to-practice may be observed in one proposed investigation. This investigation utilizing a causal comparative design would examine the determine of differences exist between male and female single-parents, and male and female married-parents on multivariate stress measures. Another component of this investigation would examine the effect of various stress regulation techniques on multivariate stress measures. The practice component would utilize several stress regulation techniques for the adult educator, it would serve a useful purpose to become briefly familiar with some of these stress regulation techniques.

Support groups for adult learners could be a useful means by which to reduce the "uniqueness perception" experienced by some (Yalom, 1975). Group feedback and reassurance can provide the incentive to maintain the effort necessary to manage personal and psychological stress.

Another procedure for regulating stress is general relaxation. Many adults have been told by doctors, friends, and family members that they must learn to relax. Being told to relax often elicits different thoughts for most adults. Nevertheless, there are some general principles associated with relaxation which many adults will find useful. The relaxation component of Wolpe's (1982) systematic desensitization is an organized method which might be used to learn to relax major muscle groups of the body. Eventually the entire body is relaxed. For example, an adult sitting comfortably in a reclining chair might be asked to tense the flexor and extensor muscles of their forearm by gripping the arm of their chair. The adult is then instructed to compare the difference between the tension in the tense forearm and the non-tense arm. This tense and relax procedures are used for every major muscle group of the entire body. Another procedure which is commonly used in stress regulation is biofeedback.

Biofeedback uses any biological instrument (e.g. thermometer, Electromyograph, EKG, etc.) to measure the biological processes of interest (e.g. hand temperature) and provides the person generating the biological process with information (e.g. auditory, visual, or kinesthetic) necessary to learn how to control that biological process (Johnson, 1979). Earlier Joan was described as suffering from tension headaches. Tension headaches usually involve an increase in muscle tension in the region of the lower neck and shoulders. Through Electromyograph (muscle) biofeedback Joan could learn to reduce the muscle tension. A by-product of the reduced muscle tension is an ability to abort the tension headache.

Conclusions

From research-to-practice it is quite evident that an understanding of differences between adult learners on various multivariate stress constructs would be most beneficial to those involved in adult and continuing education. Furthermore, a brief understanding of the many stress regulation techniques is particularly noteworthy. Each adult educator undoubtedly holds some pristine vision of adult and continuing educational virtue that one would like to see adult educational institutions display. Yet one of those virtues should be a keen sensitivity to the multivariate stressors which impinge upon adults in continuing educational programs.

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AN EVALUATIVE STUDY OF STUDENT NURSE LEARNING WITHIN SHARED AND PRIMARY TEACHING MODELS

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AN EVALUATIVE STUDY OF STUDENT NURSE LEARNING WITHIN SHARED AND PRIMARY TEACHING MODELS

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Statement of the Problem

The "shared" or team teaching approach has been a traditional concept within most nursing education programs. As a teaching technique, part of its popularity stems from its efficiency in teaching standardized nursing care routines to large numbers of nursing students. As its major benefit, the shared teaching approach allows for specialized faculty input yet provides each faculty member with time to pursue other projects (Tarpey & Chen, 1978, p.36).

Many nursing instructors, however, feel uncomfortable with this teaching approach. Moreover, as nursing faculty gain more academic sophistication and professional autonomy, members of the profession are envisioning a shift toward more of a "primary" teaching approach. In this method of teaching, an individual instructor retains full accountability for a smaller, self-contained group of students. A major benefit of this kind of approach is the satisfaction of providing continuity of teacher input. Within a primary teaching model, however, each instructor must then possess strong skills as a generalist in addition to the more regularly occurring skills as a specialist in one clinical area.

Clearly, both the shared and primary teaching approaches have benefits for faculty members. Little is known, however, about either model's benefits for individual types of learners, that is, its learning effectiveness. This research project was designed to explore the problem of impact on student learning with the use of shared and primary teaching instructional modes. Utilizing an experimental research design, the study tested the following null hypothesis: There is no significant difference in learner performance between primary and shared teaching modes.

Review of the Literature

Two major concepts (i.e., learning style preference and cognitive development) form the theoretical framework for the study reported here. The first, Gregorc's (1982) model of learning style diagnosis, measures individual preferences in the areas of perception and ordering. The perceptual dimension relates to the individual's preference for either abstract or concrete conceptualization. The ordering dimension refers to the ways in which people arrange or organize information in either sequential or random order. Thus, four major modes of learning style preference are possible.

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Lange (1972) has been one nursing leader to encourage the use of student cognitive style identification to optimize learning and performance in varied clinical and content areas. DeTornyay (1972) has also spoken of the need for planning learning experiences to accommodate learners with different cognitive styles.

Recent research efforts in nursing education appear to support these earlier recommendations. For example, Hodson (1982) found differences in both the overall structural and qualitative aspects and in the interpersonal aspects of the behavior of field-independent and field-dependent nursing students as they interacted with the nursing educational environment. In addition, Simpson and Walker (1983) concluded from a recent study that a difference in teaching approach "seems essential to maximize learning."

Assessment of students' cognitive development, the second major concept forming the study's theoretical framework, is based upon Perry's (1968) theory of intellectual and ethical development. In general, Perry describes three categories of development (dualism, relativism, and commitment) which range from a "simplistic, categorical view of knowledge and values to a complex pluralistic perspective" (Widick, 1977, p.36).

Valiga has argued that "nurses who engage in professional practice must expand their cognitive or intellectual repertoire from one of following the orders of others to one of making independent nursing decisions" (1983, p.116). To date, studies (Collins, 1981; Valiga, 1983) indicate that nursing students tend to remain at the dualistic level throughout their academic careers instead of progressing beyond the stage of relativism to commitment.

Originally developed for use with traditionally-aged college students, the Perry Scheme of cognitive development (Perry, 1968) is increasingly utilized in studies of adult students (Cameron, 1983). With the growing numbers of adult students in nursing education programs (many of whom might be expected to have attained a higher level of cognitive development because of previous collegiate experiences), assessment of the student's level of cognitive development and its effect on learning performance becomes an important variable for study. An Ideal Learning Environment essay provided assessment materials for rating learner responses on the Perry development scale by the Syracuse Rating Group, a professional group of Perry rating experts.

Measurement of learning performance consisted of two components:

1. Pre-post Measuring Device. A modified form of the Index of Objective Fulfillment (Fast, 1978) served as a pre-post measuring device in this experimental evaluation design. The original evaluation form was designed to provide individual

learners with an opportunity to measure the extent to which their earlier identified learning objectives were met as a result of participation in a specific learning program. For use in this study, the form was modified to utilize the specific course objectives.

Use of the Index of Objective Fulfillment was especially appropriate in the research design. First, the instrument provided a "quantitative approach to measuring a program's effectiveness" (p.11). Secondly, the instrument was designed in such a way that the student could evaluate the learning experience in terms of specifically stated objectives "despite a good or bad impression of the instructor and despite the influence of other participants" (p.13).

2. Post Course Achievement Score. This portion of the data collection included the student's final course grade, determined through subscores from tests, papers and the clinical evaluation.

Research Design

The study sample was drawn from a group of 120 sophomore level baccalaureate nursing students enrolled in a three-credit hour, 10-week long Nursing Fundamentals course. The course included both theoretical and clinical components.

For the purposes of this study, primary teaching referred to a teaching model in which one instructor provided all lectures, simulation laboratory checkoffs and clinical supervision for a group of 30 students. Shared teaching referred to a model in which several instructors shared responsibility for the provision of lectures, simulation laboratory checkoffs and clinical supervision for a group of 90 students.

A stratified random sampling technique by learning style preference prior to the beginning of the quarter determined placement into the primary and shared teaching groups. The approximately 90 students who agreed to participate in the study were asked to sign an informed consent form.

Data Analysis

Data analysis was conducted to determine correlation between learning performance and teaching model (i.e., shared and primary teaching). To that end, the null hypothesis was treated by an analysis of variance with the level of significance established at the 0.05 level.

Numerical results of the Cognitive Development scores were accompanied by a narrative summary thus allowing qualitative comments to "flesh-out" the quantitative measurements. In addition, frequency distributions were obtained for selected independent variables.

Results and Discussion

No significant correlation could be found between teaching group assignment and learner performance as measured by either the Index of Objective Fulfillment or the Final Course Grade. As a result, the null hypothesis could not be rejected at this time. Several factors, however, indicated that further study is needed to more carefully examine the research question.

Weak, yet significant, correlational trends in the group as a whole, were noted in several areas. For example, a positive relationship existed between the Index of Objective Fulfillment and Concrete-Sequential Learning Preference (R=.20, p=.03). On the other hand, a negative relationship existed between the Index of Objective Fulfillment and the Cognitive Development score (R=-.19, p= .04), as well as between the Final Grade and Abstract-Random Learning Preference (R=-.20, p=.03).

Qualitative summaries of the Perry Cognitive Development Scores included numerous comments regarding students' preferences for "a small classroom with one instructor who would give them individualized attention and would consequently get to know them better." A small class "allows the instructor 'to become familiar with each student and for the students to become friendly with each other....provides the opportunity to ask questions without feeling intimidated'"....and allows learning to take place "'easier' because a 'one on one' teaching experience is more likely to occur." In addition, the summary notes, "a sizable number of students...mentioned being concerned with stress and the pressure of having to study for a big test or final in a course."

Frequency distributions reflected dominant Abstract-Random learning style preferences (73.6%). In addition, a number of students exhibited combination peaks (Abstract-Random/Concrete-Sequential= 19%; Abstract-Random/Concrete-Random= 18%). The Cognitive Development ratings ranged from 222 to 445 with 42.9% in the 233-333 range, reflecting Perry's category of Dualism. In several ways, then, this study sample represents a fairly homogenous group of individuals, even though 20.8% were categorized as "nontraditional" students.

Several logistical factors pointed to the need for further study of this research question. The feasibility of conducting a study based upon a stratified sampling technique was hampered by the relatively small sample size. In addition, the 10 week long quarter allowed for the study was probably too short for any significant difference to occur within such a homogenous group of students.

Summary and Conclusions

In the study reported above, no significant differences were found in learner performance between primary and shared teaching modes. However, other findings indicated a need for further study of the problem, utilizing larger sample sizes, longer time frames and more heterogenous comparison groups (for example, comparing students in generic and RN completion programs).

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INSTRUCTIONAL MODELS FOR OLDER LEARNERS: A CRITIQUE OF CURRENT RESEARCH

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INSTRUCTIONAL MODELS FOR OLDER LEARNERS: A CRITIQUE OF CURRENT RESEARCH

Philosophical support and a rationale for education for older adults has been well established in the adult education literature. Education can play a vital role in the life of the older adult by providing life enrichment, facilitating continued personal development, strengthening self-sufficiency, providing retraining of job skills or training for a second career, and offering a meaningful leisure-time activity. Yet participation in educational programs by older adults has consistently been found to be low (Cross, 1981).

Numerous factors may contribute to this low participation including transportation needs, lack of accessibility and cost. Institutional inflexibility may exist in adapting to the needs and interests of older learners. Low participation is also affected by an age-cohort effect characterized by low educational activity throughout the life span for those with low educational attainment (Cross, 1981). The average educational level of Americans 65 and over was 9.7 years of schooling in 1980 (Hendricks and Hendricks, 1981, p. 77).

The educational level of the general population is increasing with each future aging cohort. It can then be projected that interest in education on the part of the elderly will also increase. "By the end of this century the gap in years of schooling between age cohorts is expected to diminish to less than one year. This fact, however, should only urge those involved in adult education to accelerate their efforts to serve older adults in the present and in the immediate future . . ." (Heisel, Durkenwald and Anderson, 1981, p. 227). As educational expectations of the elderly heighten, adult educators will be increasingly challenged to develop program process and content which will be meaningful and relevant to the unique needs and interests of older learners.

A strong foundation of theory and empirical testing of appropriate instructional models will aid educators with this task. At present, this foundation for practice is lacking. As Peterson and Eden (1981, p. 57-58) state: "Thus far, classroom instruction of older people has been inadequately conceptualized and insufficient research findings are available to clarify the expected results of various instructional designs on selected populations of older people." Practitioners are thus left in the position of making instructional decisions based on tradition, intuition and/or trial and error.

DESCRIPTIVE MODELS

Descriptions of programs and philosophical arguments for certain models can be found in the literature. The following is a listing of such models.

1. A Humanistic Model (Wass and West, 1977):

   These authors set forth a humanistic view of learning which centers around the discovery of meaning by the learner and enhancement of self concept.

2. Special Education for the Elderly (Lampner, 1980):

   Lampner advocates a diagnostic, prescriptive program for the elderly

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who have functioned adequately most of their lives but, with aging, have acquired physical, mental or social disabilities.

3. An Andragogical Model (Jones, 1979; Meyer, 1977; Bolton, 1978):

   This approach, based on Knowles' work, states that educational programs for the elderly be concerned not only with the content, but also have the opportunity to consider their own needs, attitudes, values, and feelings.

4. Education for Transiting/Education for Empowerment (Bolton, 1978; Knott, 1983):

   Based on Paulo Freire's educational philosophy, the learning experience is designed to help the learner move from one way of perceiving reality to another and to move from a state of oppression to a state of more personal freedom.

5. Cognitive Style Approach (Peterson and Eden, 1981):

   The authors use field-dependence--field-independence as their conceptualization of cognitive style. Successful instruction is based on an appropriate match of teacher, student, method and content. As older people tend to be field-dependent, certain strategies are cited as more appropriate.

6. Microcomputers and the Elderly (Hoot and Hayslip, 1983):

   Computers are advocated as a non-threatening, self-pacing means of instruction. The availability of commercial software packages make computers a flexible approach to individualized lifelong learning for senior citizens.

7. Cognitive Development and Career Retraining (Franz, 1983):

   Franz proposes vocational retraining for older persons which, while facilitating career adaptability and success, also attempts to increase the older adults' cognitive complexity and flexibility. The need for empirical study into the appropriate methods for this process is discussed.

8. Instructional Models in Preretirement Education (Lynch, 1979; Giordano and Giordano, 1983):

   In relation to the specific goals of preretirement education, Lynch discusses seven process-modes, some of which have been empirically tested. Giordano and Giordano outline four models including the newly emerging human potential model.

EMPIRICALLY TESTED MODELS

Less can be found in the literature reporting empirical research into the effectiveness of specified instructional models for older adults. The following are brief descriptions of these research efforts:

1. Self-Directed Learning Projects (Hiemstra, 1976):

   Utilizing Tough's methodology, Hiemstra found that: "Older people can, want to and do learn" (p. 337). While upper-middle and upper class, college-educated, and white collar respondents carried out significantly more learning projects, the less educated blue collar and lower-class subgroups also engaged in many hours of self-directed learning. Hiemstra's implications included new roles for educators, new settings for learning and the availability of more and better resources for learning.

2. Responsive Education for Self-Actualization (West and Ernst, 1981):

   This pilot program was designed to fit Moody's Stage IV of Self-actualization through utilization of a holistic approach. While organizing goals around McClusky's five educational needs for older adults (coping, expressive, contributive, influence, and transcendence needs) and by using a variety of instructional methods, the researchers sought to provide an appropriate learning environment for personal growth. Significant improvement was found in morale, locus of control, and several physiological measures.

3. Humanistic Model for instructional Strategies (Bolton, 1976):

   This heuristic study involved evaluation of a pilot program based on pre-retirement training and utilizing humanistic instructional strategies (group inquiry which included affective concerns of the learners as well as content concerns of the curriculum). Data was collected through a program evaluation questionnaire (74% responded favorably to the usefulness of the program) and a group opinion questionnaire (93% responded favorably to the humanistic group processes).

4. Self-efficacy Assessment and Peer Group Leaders (Poser and Engels, 1983):

   This study was designed to test the feasibility of using trained peer group leaders in preretirement education and the application of self-efficacy theory to the development and evaluation of a preretirement program. Self-report measures were used for self-efficacy assessment and assessment of retirement knowledge and morale. Pretests were administered and follow-up tests were taken three months after the 15-hour weekend seminar. At the time of the follow-up tests, significant differences were found on two self-efficacy measures and on retirement knowledge. The ability to generalize from this study is limited due to the self-selected sample (middle-class and well-educated).

IMPLICATIONS FOR RESEARCH

As can be seen from this review of the literature, there is a need for systematic research into those instructional models which would be most effective and appropriate for use with older learners. As education for the aged is a relatively new area, it is understandable that much of what has been written on instructional design for older learners has been descriptive in nature. However, the descriptive models cited here could serve as an excellent starting point for vigorous research. As this initial research is being completed, there would then emerge the need for synthesis and translation of research into practice.

To lay the groundwork for future research, the following are assumptions which can be made regarding older learners:

1. Older adults can learn. Healthy older people are capable of continuing to learn into their 60's, 70's and 80's. Botwinick (1977) gives a comprehensive review of the literature in this area.
2. The unique social position of older adults and the effects of aging create special learning needs. Older adults have certain characteristics which make them distinctively different from younger groups, including age-related physiological changes and social/environmental changes such as retirement and the loss of appropriate roles. By virture of longevity, older adults also have a lifetime of unique experiences from which to draw.
3. All elderly are not alike. No age group can be characterized as homogenous on the basis of age alone. Also, as each age group gets older, its members become more heterogenous.
4. There is no one instructional model which is appropriate for use with all older adults. Instructional models and strategies flow from the learners, the content, and the purpose of the educational activity.

In planning future research on the effectiveness of specific instructional models, certain factors would also need to be considered. These include limitations on generalization of data due to the self-selecting nature of volunteer older learners, both in response to program content and because of limited mobility. Replication with varying older population groups would add support for any particular instructional model. Sensitivity to a possible "Hawthorne effect" would also be in order. Are positive outcomes the result of a specific educational intervention or the fact that there was an educational program where previously there had been none? Another consideration would be the need to retain the older learner's perception of the appropriateness and relevance of a learning experience. Much meaning can be lost by the use of external measures if they are not congruent with the internal meaning of the experience for the participant.

IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

Improved practice should be among the major concerns of the adult education researcher. While the current status of research into instructional models for the elderly is limited, an understanding of this research can be of heuristic value to practitioners. There is a need for vigorous, systematic research in this area, yet there are daily decisions to be made. Effective program planning and evaluation can lend support to a particular program in the absence of an empirical base and can also help enlighten and guide research.

As stated earlier, instructional models flow from the needs and interests of the learners, the content to be learned and the purpose for the educational activity. Strong program planning maximizes a "goodness of fit" in these areas. Program evaluation, both formative and summative, helps determine the effectiveness of an educational program and would also reflect this "goodness of fit." This type of evaluation would speak only to a specific group of learners, a specific content area and a specific purpose for the learning. A compilation of such evaluative efforts, however, might begin to reveal patterns and offer insights which could then help guide research efforts and lead to theory building for future practice.

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GRASSROOTS COMPUTER EDUCATION:
A STUDY OF COMPUTER USER GROUPS

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GRASS ROOTS COMPUTER EDUCATION:
A STUDY OF COMPUTER USER GROUPS

Introduction

Computers are becoming an integral part of our society. They are used in a broad spectrum of applications from recreation to work. It is inevitable that within the near future every individual in the United States will use computers to perform common and daily tasks. Moreover, experts predict that education, business, and leisure activities will be greatly altered by the computer.

Computers are a complex technology in their present state. An individual must expend a great deal of effort to learn about the computer and how to use it. Adults are using several methods for learning about computers. Traditional educational institutions, such as colleges, vocational schools and continuing education programs, are reporting a high number of enrollments in computer classes. Retail computer stores are being established daily. Computer software programs are being sold to teach people how to use their computer. Books about computers are being published at an increasingly rapid rate. Business Week reports that a market research firm, Dataquest, Inc., estimates that the training industry will capture $3 billion of the $14 billion spent on personal computers by 1986.

While a large number of people will contribute their share to the $3 billion to be spent on computer education, many individuals are turning to an entirely different entity as a source of computer education. This is the computer user group.

Computer user groups are established to provide members with education, consumer advice, software libraries, and other unique services. The computer user groups range in size from a few people that meet over lunch to the 7,000 members of the Boston Computer Society. User groups may be open to the public or they might be part of an institution like a school or business.

This phenomonon can provide enlightening information to adult educators who are interested in the activities of adults as they attempt to learn and cope with new technology. The computer user groups are of particular interest since they represent an approach to learning that occurs without the direction or initiation of traditional providers of educational services. Computer user groups provide a model that can be used to design adult learning programs, which address future technological education.

Computer user groups are a contemporary example of an adult education movement, like the lyceum movement of the 1800's. Yet, there has been little attention paid to this phenomenon outside of the popular news media. It is certainly not receiving the attention that it should among adult educators. This study is an attempt to remedy the situation. It is an exploratory study that sets the groundwork for an expanded study of computer user groups throughout the United States.

Review of Relevant Research and Theory

A review of educational and social science literature covering the past five years did not discover any material directly related to computer user groups. The studies done on self initiated education provided some guidance on the study of computer user groups. For purposes of conducting an exploratory study, the popular computer magazines were an important source of information.

There are several articles written about computer user groups in popular computer magazines. These sources include InfoWorld, PC World, Byte, PC, Business Computer Systems, Personal Computing, and other miscellaneous magazines and papers. Most of these articles are descritpive. They describe what occurs during the user group meetings and benefits that result from joining a user group. Information for the articles usually comes from two sources. One source is observation of the meetings and the other is interviews with user group members.

Most of the articles cite several reasons for members joining computer user groups. The reasons include:

1. Support from people who have experienced common problems using their computers
2. Assistance in learning to use computers and software programs
3. Learning and sharing about applications for which computers are being used in home, business, and education
4. Ability to obtain free software which is in the public domain
5. Obtain information about hardware or software products from unbiased sources
6. Socialization with people who have common interests

No articles were found that concentrated on the learning phenomenon of computer user groups.

One article contained valuable information about the characteristics of members. Harry J. Foxwell in the August, 1983 issue of PC World reports on the results of a survey given to members at the January 17, 1983 meeting of the Capital PC User Group, where approximately 270 of the 400 people attending completed the survey. This survey showed that over 50% of the members had advanced graduate degrees, 60% reported family incomes of $50,000 or more, only one in eight respondents were female, and 51% are over 40 years old. The article contained a complete copy of the survey which was helpful in designing the survey instrument used in this research project.

The Research Question

Our survey was an exploratory effort to find out more about how people learn to use personal computers and the specific role of user groups in providing people with learning opportunities. There are several questions that we hoped to answer as a result of the research project. These are detailed below.

1. What methods do adult learners use to learn how to use a personal computer?
2. Who joins computer user groups?
3. Why do people join computer user groups?
4. What do members expect to gain from participation in the group?
5. In what other activities do members of user groups participate to learn about computers?
6. What is the relationship between motivation for joining and outcomes of participation?
7. Does attendance at meetings provide a learning experience for the user?
8. Is there opportunity for the member to determine what type of learning will take place in the meetings?
9. What elements of computer user groups lend themselves to construction of a model useful for the adult and community educator?

This project is a pilot that provides a basis for conducting a more exhaustive study of user groups around the country during the next year.

Methodology

The Northeast Indiana IBM PC Club was chosen as the focus of our study. This group was selected because one of the researchers was a member of the group and familiar with its operation and because the leadership was willing to make the entire membership list available for the survey.

The membership list contained 323 names. The list contained the names of all persons who had purchased a computer from the local IBM vendor and had been referred to the group, as well as, members of the group. A survey containing 34 items was mailed to each person on the list. A total of 128 usable surveys were returned (approximately a 40% return rate).

Results of the survey were tablulated by an IBM Personal Computer with Lotus 1-2-3 software. Descriptive statistics were used in arriving at our final results.

Results

The typical member was a 40 year old male with an annual family income of $48,700 and more than 16 years of education. The member probably owned an IBM personal computer and also used one at work. He usually had some experience working with a mainframe or minicomputer, had approximately two years of experience using personal computers and considered himself an experienced computer user. Those respondants who belonged to the user group (71%) did not differ significantly from those who did not.

Several items focused on preferred learning style and sources used for learning. Sixty three percent reported that they learned how to use computers best on their own. Eighteen percent indicated that they preferred learning about computers in a small group. Five percent reported their preference to learn with a friend or relative. Thirteen percent stated that a formal class was their best method for learning about computers.

Sources used by the respondants for learning about computers were examined from three viewpoints. The respondants were asked to check any resource that had been used in the past (results are shown in column 1, Table 1). They were then asked to check the resource that they considered to be their primary source of learning for the computer (results shown in column 2, Table 1). Finally, respondants were asked to assign a priority rating to three resources that they were most likely to use in the future to learn more about computers (results are shown in columns 3-5, Table 1).

The remaining items in the survey centered on participation in the user group. Seventy one percent of the respondants were members of a computer users group. Several of the individuals reported that they belonged to groups other than the one targeted for the survey. These were reported in the final results because the survey was designed to discover information about individual members of user groups and not about a particular user group.

The reasons that people joined a user group are reported in Table 2. This question was stated in two ways. First, the respondants were asked to check all applicable reasons for joining the group. Second, they were asked to designate the primary reason for joining. The most common reason that members joined the group was to learn more about computers, with 42% reporting this reason. The next most frequently stated reason, which was reported by 32% of the respondants, was to share common experiences

Several questions were asked to determine the quality of learning that took place in the users group as evaluated by the members. The most important results from these questions are reported in a narrative format.

Table 1

What sources have you used to learn about computers?

Source	Used	Primary	First	Second	Third
Classes - high school	3%	0%	1%	0%	0%
Classes - vocational schools	7%	0%	0%	1%	1%
Classes - colleges	43%	7%	5%	4%	7%
Classes - employer	29%	6%	4%	5%	7%
Classes - other sources	24%	2%	5%	6%	5%
User group meetings	48%	6%	5%	11%	23%
CAI software	45%	5%	6%	17%	9%
Books and magazines	77%	20%	26%	23%	16%
Self education	96%	46%	42%	23%	13%
Friends	31%	1%	1%	2%	6%
Family	8%	0%	2%	1%	2%
Television	10%	0%	0%	0%	1%
Other	6%	3%	1%	1%	1%

Table 2

What are the reasons you joined the users group? (Check all applicable items.) What is the primary reason you joined the users group? (Check only one.)

Type of Reason	Multiple Reasons Percent Responding	Primary Reason Percent Responding
To learn more about computers	81%	42%
To share common experiences and problems	77%	32%
To obtain access to free software	73%	11%
To see demonstrations	48%	4%
To participate in social activities	11%	1%
To obtain group purchase rates	25%	1%
Forum for consumer advocacy	4%	1%
Other	13%	7%

Forty nine percent of the respondants reported that they had learned more from the users group than they could have done on their own. Twenty three percent stated that they had learned about the sames as they could have learned on their own. Only seven percent said that they had learned less than they could have on their own.

Forty five percent indicated that they learned something new about computers after attending a meeting either all or most of the time. Twenty seven percent said that this occured some of the time, while 13% responded that it seldom or never was their experience.

Sixty three percent reported that the user group meets their primary need for joining the group most or all of the time. Twenty three percent stated their need was meet some of the time. Three percent said that their need was seledom or never meet.

Fifty percent felt that they were able to determine learning opportunities within the group most or all of the time. Thirty two percent indicated that they were able to do this some of the time. Ten percent reported that they were seledom or never able to determine learning opportunities.

Conclusions

The respondants to this survey were not typical of the entire adult population and were quite extraordinary because of their predominate male, upper income, and highly educated status. However, there are some interesting points to note. The most popular methods used for learning about computers concentrated on self-directed learning activities such as reading books and self education on the computer. This is consistant with Tough's and Penland's research on self directed learning.

Adults do not seem as enthusiastic about the use of CAI software as many educators are. Forty five percent had used CAI but only six percent planned to use it as their first choice of future learning sources. This attitude may result from poor CAI design. Frequently the software fails to employee simulation, learning needs diagnosis, and multiple branching. These techniques individualize the software to the responses of the learner and provide her/him with a greater sense of control over the learning activity.

Adult educators should also be interested in the resources that the respondants intend to use in the future. Only fifteen percent of the respondants plan to use formal classes as a method of learning in the future. This should warn some educators to cautiously approach the speed with which they add computer courses to their educational programs.

The reported feelings about participation in user groups was quite positive when viewed as a learning experience. Many businesses are beginning to implement user groups as a method of providing internal training to their employees. Some colleges are also sponsoring user groups for faculty and students. Adult and community education programs could support user groups by providing facilties, coordinating logistics, publicity, and access to audio-visual equipment. This type of assistance would provide the opportunity for more individuals in the community to discover and use this source for learning. Assitance without control should not discourage the self-directed aspects of the user group.

It appears that user group members are motivated to participate because of learning opportunities; both formal and informal. There is a great deal to be learned from computer user groups by the adult educator. Hopefully, this research will stiumulate practioners to examine how user groups can be integrated into existing programs. Researchers should continue to study the phenomenon of computer user groups to increase our knowledge about groups of adults who band together for learning.

THE SALIENT CHILDHOOD EXPERIENCES OF ADULT HIGH SCHOOL NON-COMPLETERS: THE EFFECT ON THEIR PSYCHOSOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

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THE SALIENT CHILDHOOD EXPERIENCES OF ADULT HIGH SCHOOL NON-COMPLETERS: THE EFFECT ON THEIR PSYCHOSOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

INTRODUCTION

Researchers investigating the problem of non-persistence have focused much of their attention on the personality structures of ABE/GED students in order to determine if significant differences exist between persisters and non-persisters. Killian (1969) used the California Test of Personality with a sample of adults enrolled in a learning laboratory. He found that dropouts scored significantly lower than persisters on the "social adjustment" and "total adjustment" scales. Wilson (1980) investigated the relationship between the persistence behavior of 142 GED students and the self-descriptions they gave on a personological research instrument at enrollment. He concluded that dropouts described themselves as more: rebellious, hostile, impulsive, headstrong, irresponsible, impatient, desirious of attention and authority than persisters. Dropouts were less socialized, less able to give prolonged effort, less willing to subordinate self, while being inattentive to the needs of others.

Martin (1984) developed a typology which characterized the psychosocial developmental patterns experienced by the 79 adult high school non-completers (AHSN-Cs) he interviewed. He suggested that several underlying concepts appeared to influence the adult devlopment of the subjects: deviance, self-esteem, setting and achieving goals, (and) literacy and social awareness. The life experiences of the subjects were categorized into four groups: Entreprenuers, owners of private businesses and (or) high-salaried employees; Regulars, regularly employed blue-collar workers who often enjoyed consistent employment at good wages; Marginals, often unemployed welfare recipients; and Underclass, actively worked to sustain themselves through deviant and often illegal means.

The Effects of Childhood Experiences on Personality Development

The above research efforts, while providing valuable insight into the behavior patterns of AHSN-Cs, largely reflects the focus of current research on the adult dimension of personality development. Following the lead of these reseachers, practitioners have, by default, concluded that it is acceptable practice to plan and implement educational programs based largely on the information derived from such research. Educational programs based on a limited dimension of the "total" adult personality will likely result in inaccurate nomothetical interpretations of client needs.

Earnest Becker (1973) also argued that childhood experiences are essential to personality development and illustrated the contributions of such experiences by analyzing the existential nature of human beings as dualistic creatures that thrive on abstract symbols to achieve a sense of self-worth. Because man incessantly fears both life and death, Becker considers him to be literally split in two: "He has an awareness of his own splendid uniqueness in that he sticks out of nature with a towering majesty, and yet he goes back into the ground a few feet in order blindly and dumbly to rot and disappear forever" (E. Becker, 1973, p. 26). The human child is particularly vunerable to this paradoxical relationship between his angel-like mind and his animal body. "The child is overwhelmed by experiences of the dualism of the self and the body from both areas, since he can be master of neither. ...In both halves of his experience he is dispossessed, yet impressions keep pouring in on him, flooding his body. He has to make some kind of sense out of them, establish some kind of ascendancy over them"

(E. Becker, 1973, p.28).

A strong personality structure is needed to help the child overcome his existential paradox and bring the experiences of life safely and securely under his own control. Becker (1973) suggests that a high level of self-esteem is a requisite. Self-esteem is increased, "When one's childhood experiences have been securly life-supporting and warmly enhancing to the sense of self, to the feeling of being really special, truly number one in creation" (p. 22). Suggesting that self-esteem takes root in the elemental physical experience of the infant, Becker argued there were three ways human beings acquire self-esteem: (1) from the power of the other--from the mother when she is a dependable support and does not interfere too much with the child's own activity and from a strong father with whom the child can identify; (2) from the secure possession of one's own body as a safe locus under one's control; and (3) the cultural "causa sui" project--which reflects society's efforts to influence the value orientations of individuals and absorb their productive energies for the good of "all" its members.

The contributions of the Family Unit to Building Self-Esteem

Describing the family unit as a factory and its adult members as "people-makers", Satir (1972) asserted that the family is primarily responsible for developing a physically healthy, mentally alert, feeling, loving, playful, authenic, creative, productive human being; one who can stand on his own two feet, who can be on equally good terms with both his tenderness and his toughness, know the difference between them and therefore struggle effectively to achieve his goals. She suggested four key factors were most often associated with troubled families: self-worth was low; communication was indirect, vague, and not really honest; rules were rigid, inhuman, nonnegotiable, and everlasting; and the linking to society was fearful, placating and blaming. The reverse was true for nuturing families.

THE RESEARCH DESIGN

This paper discusses the retrospective self-reported childhood experiences of the 79 AHSN-Cs interviewed by Martin (1984), and the manner in which such experiences contributed to their personality development. The larger study took fifteen months to complete and entailed conducting two- to three-hour, tape-recorded interwiews with a diverse group of subjects. The research format followed the methodology suggested by Glaser and Strauss (1967). The data were collected from persons living in three U.S. locations: a large Midwestern metropolis of over six million people; a mid-sized Southeastern city of 160,000 people; and several rural Southeastern communities of less than 5,000 persons. The interviewees were recruited from many diverse settings including ABE/GED programs, social service agencies, employment settings, street corners, and homes. Each interviewee was asked to address a series of questions regarding their: childhood, schooling, adolescence, young adulthood, family background, current family, employment history, life crises, and others. The interviewee was encouraged to discuss in-depth any experience(s) considered important to their personal development. This paper focuses on the subjects' responses to two questions: "What do you remember most about your childhood experiences?" and "Which of these experiences do you think most affected your life?" Through content analysis, the data offered in response to these questions were systematically analyzed and categorized.

The Sample

The sample represents a diverse group of people whose only shared characteristics are that they were born in America and did not complete high school. Of those interviewed, 33 percent were white, 65 percent were black, and two percent were hispanic. The majority (57%) were women. A total of 73 percent were currently enrolled in ABE/GED programs, while 27 percent were not attending a program. Forty-two percent lived in a large city, 34% in a mid-sized city, and 24% in a rural community. Their ages ranged from 17 to 72 with an average age of 33.

FINDINGS: DATA ANALYSIS

The Family Backgrounds of the Subjects

A disproportionately large percentage of the subjects grew up in a family environment that differed substantially from the two-parent, patriarchal dominant family pattern. Only 21.5-percent grew up in two-parent homes in which they were reared by their natural parents. A large majority (78.5%) were brought up in alternative family patterns--this figure compares with a projected national average of 25 to 35 percent (Satir, 1972, p. 170). These individuals became members of either reconsituted (blended) two-parent families from remarriages (15.2%), living with grandparents (15.2%), relative (3.8%), or foster parents (2.5%); or a one-parent family in which they were brought up by a mother (34.2%) or a father (7.6%).

As evidenced by the above figures, a large majority grew up in homes in which their parents experienced marital upset or were never married. Only 21.5-percent lived in homes in which the parents remained married until they reached age 18. The proportions were equal (30.4%) for those whose parents were either divorced or widowed. Smaller proportions (11.4% and 6.3%) grew up in homes where their parents were either never married or had permanently separated.

Salient Childhood Experiences

In response to the two questions that are the focus of this discussion, the subjects offered a plenitude of data in the form of verbal comments which were tape-recorded, transcribed, and analyzed to determind the central focus of each subjects' discussion. The majority (35%) indicated their parents' marital disruption and (or) other disruptive family experiences greatly affected them. Stigmatizing and catastrophic experiences were the primary concern of 34-percent, while 23-percent reported benevolent family experiences. A smaller porportion (14%) reported experiences that directly interfered with school attendance and 9-percent did not recall anything special about their childhoods.

These experiences were often not isolated events affecting only one individual at one point in time, but were interrelated with other experiences, spanned long time periods, and involved more than one central character. Space limitations will not permit exhaustive case histories of each type of experience, therefore, only limited illustrations are provided.

Disruptive Family Experiences

Those subjects who identified disruptive family relationships as major events in their lives identified types of experiences: parential separation, divorce, or death; parential alcohol and child abuse; and parential traveling which entailed transitions to different schools and communities.

Case History Illustrations. John, a 17 year-old white male, believes the divorce of his parents when he was eight years old significantly altered his life. His mother was remarried when he was ten. At age fourteen he had started smoking marijuna. He started drinking alcohol at age fifteen and by age sixteen he was smoking and drinking heavily. It was also at age sixteen that he first took "acid", was arrested for stealing a car and was placed in a foster home. John suggested that his deviant activities were primarily attention-getting devices aimed at both his step-fatehr and his natural father.

Another subject, J.J. a 17 year-old white male, felt that the passing of both his natural father and his step-mother inalterably changed his life. When he was twelve years old his father died of a heart attack. "That shook me up real bad", he said, and at age fifteen his step-mother committed suicide. "I felt like commiting suicide myself at that time. After that happened, I felt I didn't have [anything] else to live for. It seemed like everything was going down hill. I was losing girlfriends and friends. It just changed me. After all that happened, I wasn't myself". After the death of his step-mother, J.J. was placed in a foster home, from which he ran away and eventually stayed with his grandparents and later with his natural mother.

Stigmatizing and Catastropic Experiences

Over one-third of the respondents indicated the experiences most affecting their lives centered around stigmatizing and catastropic events. The experiences identified included: Being poor, enduring hunger and difficult times; Being personally engaged in chemical abuse, involvements with theft, and (or) gang activities; Being teased, e.g., for having facial blemishes; Seeing their homes burned, being shot, raped, beaten by gangs, and others.

Case History Illustration. Callie, a 54 year-old black woman, related experiences and perceptions of her childhood which illustrated the hardships associated with being the daughter of a sharecropper in a small rural community in the Southeast. "I was a very poor child. I had a mother and a father. But my father didn't do too much taking care of us. [My mother] would wash for the white people on a Monday and they would give us two gallons of milk and maybe two pounds of butter. Our food would be milk, butter and bread most of the time. We lived on it for weeks. When we went to school we weren't well dressed the way children are now. We would be just some little nappy-headed children going to school, mother doing the best she could. [My] father [was] probably running around somewhere else. I think the way I was treated by my father [affected me most], [his] not supporting me. I think that's held me back a lot. ...Daddy was gone about his business and there we were--very hungry children half the time, except for that washing and ironing, milk and butter."

Plesant Family and Home Experiences

A smaller group of subjects recalled positive experiences encountered in the environments of their homes. Such experiences included a caring family, listening to advice, learning, and wrestling around the home with other siblings

Case History Illustrations. Ester, a 42 year-old white female, indicated her most salient memories of childhood took her back to a period in which her family lived in the mountains of the Southeast. "When we lived back in the mountains, I felt a lot of freedom. I could feel the wind when walking or sitting on the rocks." She considered her family to be poor, but happy. Their happiness derived from knowing that they cared for each other and that they were loved. Shellia, a 32 year-old white female, also had pleasant memories of childhood. She recalled loving the rural Southeastern countryside. "It was peaceful and homey". She especially enjoyed "playing outside in those warm summer days at my grandmother's house".

Experiences Effecting Educational Goals

Another small group of subjects identified experiences which effected directly their ability to complete high school. These experiences included: Early marriage and (or) pregnancy; Absence from school due to illnesses and other events which interfered with school attendance.

Case History Illustration. The tortuous life of Gurrell, a 25 year-old black male , illustrated the disastrous effects an unknown and uncontrollable illness can have on educational goals. He covertly suffered eight years before learning that the condition he experienced was a mental disorder that could be diagnosed and treated. His illness was "agoraphobia", an abnormal fear of crossing or of being in open places. It affected him in ways which also caused him to fear being around or in groups of people. "It kept me from attaining my goals. It kept me from going to school, graduating, or becoming an athlete on the high school track team. Because I couldn't go to school my grades weren't up to par, and therefore I wasn't able to join the team. Also, because I didn't go to school a lot, I started hanging out and I started drinking with the fellows. It [the alcohol] would take away the fear until I became sober again, so I would periodically drink all day, everyday and get high just so I wouldn't feel the way I was feeling around people. Gurrel suffered from this illness eight years before seeking treatment at age twenty-three.

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Empowerment of Older Adults: Success In Disseminating the Shepherd's Center Model

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Empowerment of Older Adults: Success in Disseminating the Shepherd's Center Model

In 1972, the Shepherd's Center was organized in Kansas City, Missouri to serve older people living independently within the community. From the beginning the major emphasis of this program has been the empowerment of older adults to meet their own needs and to remain independent as long as possible. Some of the characteristics of this model are as follows: the program is church related but independent from any one faith or denomination, serves a neighborhood, stresses volunteer leadership, relies on older people to carry the responsibility, makes use of existing resources, seeks diverse funding, and attempts to impact on the community at large in a positive way concerning aging and older people ("Guiding Principles", 1981). The Shepherd's Center Model has three major components: (1) home services, designed to provide support for those who might otherwise be prematurely institutionalized; (2) center services and programs, which aim to provide opportunities for learning, personal growth, and life enrichment; (3) and health enrichment services, designed to enable older persons to maintain their health through appropriate health management. There are now more than sixty programs in the United States and Canada modeled after the Shepherd's Center. The purpose of this study was to explore how well this model has been disseminated in varying geographic locations and serving participants with differing socioeconomic backgrounds. Historically, adult education has had minimal success in attracting older adults. Greater awareness and understanding of factors impacting on the development and implementation of an apparently effective model such as the Shepherd's Center, could potentially aid practitioners in the development of more attractive learning opportunities for older persons.

Methodology

This study was a qualitative investigation involving case studies of centers at three different sites. All sites were located in the Midwest and were chosen to represent varying geographic locations and populations with differing socioeconomic backgrounds.

Site Selection

Site A was the Shepherd's Center in Kansas City, Missouri where the program now identified as the Shepherd's Center Model was developed. It is located in a largely middle to upper middle class urban residential area. Site B was a center located in the central city of a major metropolitan area that has a population of more than two million. This center began operating in 1979. Site C was a center located in a small rural community of approximately 3,000 residents and was started in the fall of 1982.

Data Collection

Interviews. Intensive interviews were conducted with staff members in various leadership positions. Six of the individuals interviewed were paid professionals, four were volunteer retired older persons. A standardized format was used which included questions exploring historical development of the center program, present staffing, funding and other resources, programming, organizational structure, and community impact. Interviews lasted forty-five minutes, to three hours, with two hours the average. Shorter unstructured interviews were conducted with many participants. Notes were taken on all interviews and later categorized; three interviews were taped.

Observation. The researcher attended educational programs at all three sites. Observations and conversations with participants were transcribed following each visit. Information was categorized with notations indicating what appeared to be significant incidents and themes for easier reference when cross-checking.

Analysis of documents. Documents describing programs, organization, philosophy, funding and resource development strategies, and implementation of programs were analyzed and noted according to categories.

Questionnaire. A questionnaire was distributed to gather demographic information about the participants. Questions concerning age, sex, completed years of education, and household income were asked. An open-ended question was included allowing respondents to describe personal reactions to the Shepherd's Center program. Response rate to the questionnaire was 72 percent from site A, 60 percent from site B, and 80 percent from site C.

Data Analysis

Data gathered from interviews, observations, and documents were initially classified and cross-checked according to the areas covered in the standardized interview questions. As these data were compared, common patterns and themes emerged that appeared to explain some of the major differences in the development and implementation of the model at the three sites. Data were categorized according to major themes as follows: career orientation, interactive process, program ownership, sense of community, and aging perspectives.

Findings and Discussion

In selecting three very different sites, it was anticipated that demographic variables would explain differences in the adaptations of the Shepherd's Center Model. However, only slight variations were reflected in sex, age, and education ratios among the sites. The largest percentage of participants were women (site A=81%, site B=97%, site C=70%), were aged sixty-five to eighty (site A=70%, site B=69%, site C=67%), and possessed twelve years or more of completed education (site A=74%, site B=100%, site C=93%). Because of their locations, site A was expected to reflect the highest level of household income and site B, the lowest; the data indicated the reverse. The percentage of participants having a household income of $10,000 or more were as follows: site A=44%, site B=87%, and site C=60%. Although income levels did vary among the sites, it did not appear that these variances could explain the differences in program adaptations. These differences seemed more accurately attributed to factors identified from the qualitative data.

Career Orientation

The Shepherd's Center Model stresses the reliance on older people to to carry program responsibilities. At site A, the planning, implementing, and evaluating tasks are handled by volunteer older persons. One paid professional described his major responsibility as "getting older people to do for themselves that which they are able to do." The orientation of volunteer and paid professional staff is toward enhancement of the empowerment intent of the model. Another professional, emphasizing this orientation, stressed the program begins with those people "who will be served and involved in serving and who will devise a program to their needs. Other programs usually start with a facility and a staff who do the planning with the hope of attracting those with need." A volunteer worker expressing the same focus noted, "The programs are for the people--the people are not for the programs. A subtle distinction, but ever so important."

Leaders at sites B and C, did not seem as strongly oriented to the empowerment focus as to career responsibilities and influences. The centers at both sites had part time directors supported by outside sponsoring groups. Both expressed a strong sense of accountability to these groups for their Shepherd's Center activities and each took more direct responsibility for developing and implementing the programs themselves. Both sought to enlist volunteer workers, but didn't seem to feel secure relying on older volunteers to the extent the model stresses. One director observed, "Our programs are better and we get better participation when we get teachers who are paid." The other director expressed a reluctance to rely on older volunteers as a base since "they can't always be counted on to carry through". These directors indicated the ultimate responsibility for "making the program work" was theirs. Career responsibilities and orientations seemed to have greater influence on perceived roles and resulting activities for these directors than did the empowerment of older people to bear the responsibility as stressed in the model.

Interactive Process

No new program is activated at site A until an older person steps forward to initiate it. The interactive process emphasized by the model is working with not for older adults in identifying and meeting needs. Interaction is collaborative and described as "an extension of ministry by coalition". With currently more than 400 volunteers serving over 6,000 older adults, the program is more dependent on the efforts and support of the older volunteer leaders than on those of the eight paid staff members. These members are related to as supporting and cooperating workers, not as primary decision makers.

The interactive processes at sites B and C appeared to be less collaborative and more directive. Participants do make program suggestions and as committee members may help in decision making. Program development and implementation, however, seemed ultimately to be the director's responsibility. Most ideas and programs have been initiated by these paid staff members. Directors at both sites expected to leave their centers either temporarily or permanently within six months; both expressed concern about the future of their programs after their departure.

Program Ownership

In developing and implementing the Shepherd's Center Model, control of the program has been placed in the hands of the participants. Participant ownership is enhanced by the reliance on volunteer leadership and by funding strategies. Except for the first three years, no government funds have been sought or used. By intent, a broad local financial support base is being developed by soliciting funds not only from the community at large, but also from the participants through small fees and donations. The resulting effect seems to be a sense of ownership by the participants. Many identified the Shepherd's Center as "my" opportunity to "give of myself", "use my talents", and "be of service where I can call the shots".

At sites B and C, control of the program appeared to reside more with the paid professional staff than with volunteer leaders and participants. Funding at these sites draws from a much narrower base. Centers at both sites do collect fees for programs, but do not actively solicit or receive much in the way of additional contributions from participants. One staff member expressed the desire to develop a few significant and "stable" contributors as a means of promoting greater program security. At both of these sites program ownership would seem to rest more with sponsoring groups, paid professional staff, and a few large contributors, than with the participants and the community at large.

Sense of Community

The Shepherd's Center Model emphasizes empowerment in terms of caring and of responsibility for older persons by older persons and not in terms of confrontation. The program stresses the center's role as a focal point of a linkage system of services available to older adults at the center or within the community at large. Networking and avoidance of service duplication is encouraged. At site A this results in a sense of community by the participants. The center community relates to widening circles of a larger community. Response by participants and commitment by volunteers appears to be to the center community not to the program. Many older persons expressed they came to the center because it was "a way of life", "an important part of my life", or gave them a "sense of belonging".

Sense of community did not appear as strong at the other two sites. Most participants from both of these centers described their personal reactions in terms of appreciation for specific activities, for a chance to socialize, and for the opportunities for recreation and/or entertainment. Directors at sites B and C described a public relations "problem" in promoting their programs; the activities tended to be identified more with the congregations where the activities were held, and less with a community of older adults.

Aging Perspectives

At site A the later years are described as a "...period of life characterized by development as any other period and really consists of several different stages" ("Basic Assumptions", 1981). Consistently, participants expressed appreciation for opportunities afforded by the program "to grow" and "to learn and to meet new challenges not possible earlier in life". Many expressed the view that "older people have a lot to contribute to society". Aging perspectives at this center seemed to emphasize the need and ability of older adults to continue their personal growth, development, and contribution to society.

An aging perspective more frequently expressed by participants at site B described the later years as a time for "rest and enjoyment of life". Those with this perspective also expressed a need for "stimulating activities at a place where we can attend". Many participants at all three sites expressed the view that aging requires staying interested and active in life. The needs most frequently mentioned by those expressing this view were opportunities for fellowship with other older adults and "to get out do things." Aging perspectives were varied within and among the sites and appeared to affect perceptions and expressions of needs. For those who perceived aging as a period of continued development, need was related to opportunities for challenge, enrichment, and service. For those who described aging as a time for rest and enjoyment of life, need focused on accessible and stimulating activities. For those who viewed aging as a threat to continued involvement in the mainstream of life, need centered on maintaining social contacts and interesting activities.

Implications for Practice

Emphasis on the empowerment of older people as stressed by the Shepherd's Center Model, presents an approach to older learners compatible with traditional purposes of adult education. However, in the past, empowerment has rarely been the intent of learning opportunities offered older adults. This study suggests that the adaptation and application of this model is influenced more by philosophies, attitudes, and professional training and orientation and less by demographic variables than may have been anticipated. In practice, it would seem that staff members must be willing to relinquish their sense of control and ownership to older participants if the participants are to become empowered. The study indicates that successful dissemination of this program model, and perhaps of other models with similar intent, requires greater attention to the qualitative dimensions identified in this study.

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A RE-CONCEPTUALIZATION OF ADULT RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

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A RE-CONCEPTUALIZATION OF ADULT RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

Introduction

Resistance has been commonly defined as any conduct that serves to maintain the status quo in the face of pressures to alter the status quo (Zaltman, 1977). Mainstream social-psychological literature on the dynamics of change purports that resistance to change is a natural human phenomenon and that the self-system tends to be resistant to change (Swensen, 1983). Zaltman (1977, p. 59) observes that resistance is the most commonly encountered response to an advocated change. Huse (1980, pp. 118-119) identifies factors increasing and decreasing individuals' resistance to change. Based on this proposition that persons resist change, books and manuals have been written for practitioners which advise them on how to reduce or eliminate resistance to change. One such book (Hultman, 1979) offers to provide ". . .clear, concrete ways to deal more effectively with a daily reality--resistance to change." One guide for educational leaders (Miles, 1959) cites resistance to change as a positive sign, in that it means that a training program is taking hold and making a difference.

My own experience has led me to a speculation about resistance which is contrary to the foregoing observations and perspectives and which I have shared elsewhere (Menlo, 1980, 1981). It seems to me that there is no such thing as resistance to change or that, if and when it does occur, it is an unusual rather than a usual phenomenon as most behavioral science literature on the topic would have us believe. Further, it has occurred to me that I have not seen a real-life example of this phenomenon in any of my work in teaching, consulting, or training with adults in one-to-one, group, organization, or community settings. It has seemed that most adults seek rather than resist change in self and surroundings, and that daily life is comprised of a multitude of receptive responses to requests for action and change initiated by self and others. In support of this view is the writing of Szent-Gyoergyi (1974), from a bio-chemistry and bio-energetics outlook,about the natural desire of all living things to change toward a state of greater perfection. Fried (1970) observes, from a psytherapeutic perspective, that, although persons' facades of passivity may mislead us, one of the basic needs of all humans is activeness--to tackle life, to make human contacts, and to exercise will and skills. Also, Miller (1978) notes that the biology of the body is one of inter-cellular action and proposes this as a microcosm of the nature of interpersonal relationships.

If the speculation that adults do not resist change is accurate, then one could still ask why adults appear reluctant at times to engage in activeness and change efforts and what it is that they resist. What I think I have observed is that adults often resist losses which they expect will accompany or follow an an engagement in change. That is to say that the expected loss is the target of the resistance, and not the requested change. Thus, the first objective of this study is to explore the speculation that adults do *not* resist change, but, instead, what they *do* resist are expected losses which may arise in association with the change. The second objective is to acquire some preliminary learnings about the types of losses which adults may expect when facing change.

The perspective which undergirds this small exploratory study is that a major characteristic of all living systems is an inherent drive for change--an activeness, curiosity, and search for betterment. In one sense, the organism makes no decision to change or not to change, since change is a given phenomenon. It is speculated here that the internal decision-making which takes place in the face of change is whether or not certain losses will occur and what the organism intends to do about this. When losses of significant possessions are expected as a result of changing, then it is the expected losses which are resisted rather than the change itself. These losses could be of a personal nature (e.g., self-esteem, self-definition), a social nature (e.g., reputation, interpersonal power, friendship), or a material nature (e.g., resources external to self which are viewed as important or essential). When expectations of loss of elements significant to the organism arise in the consciousness of the organism, then the natural drive for change is halted as the energy of the organism is directed into resisting the expected loss. It is not until the organism can reduce its expectation of loss, gain a sense of control over the loss process, or reframe the expected loss into a non-loss or tolerable loss, that the resistance to it will be reduced or eliminated. The issue here is asserted to be that of identifying the actual locus of resistance in the change process rather than what might be termed by some as merely an issue of semantics.

Methods of Data Collection and Analysis

A structured interview questionnaire with open-end questions was constructed and passed through several interview field testings to assure clarity, on-target character of questions, consistency between intended message of questions and message received, and non-existence of bias in service of the researcher's speculation. The questionnaire invited the respondents to identify times within the past year when the respondent was either requested, asked, advised, told, or demanded to do something differently than the way s/he was doing it at the time and the respondent did not do so. It was clarified that this was an instance in which the respondent was being asked to make a change and the respondent was unwilling to do so. The respondent was then asked to select the instance about which s/he had the clearest memory and which s/he was willing to discuss. A series of questions followed asking for details about who the person making the request was;what it was the respondent was supposed to do; how it happened that the request was made; why the respondent thought the person made the request; and what the respondent thought might happen while doing what was requested, right after doing it, and later. Finally, the interviewer reviewed the request made to the respondent and what the respondent expected might happen at the three points in time, and then asked the respondent which of these four things s/he actually resisted and why. Each interview was audio taped and lasted from one to two hours. In all, thirty interviews--eighteen female and twelve male--were conducted. The subjects' ages included one person in her late teens, most in twenties through forties, and three persons in their fifties. The informal procedure fits Kerlinger's (1973), p. 129) definition of "accidental" sampling. Since to confirm the speculation under consideration the suspected arrangement would need to be true in any and all cases, this latitude in sampling procedure seemed reasonable in an exploratory study.

The thirty interviews were transcribed and later presented to a panel of four members of an interviewing seminar. They were asked to consensually judge what the respondent had indicated as the target of resistance. They were then provided with a framework of three types of loss--personal, social, and material--and asked to make consensual judgments as to whether or not each respondent's expected happenings could logically be interpreted so as to fit within the loss framework, and, if so, to determine each respondent's priority loss. In order to display the interviewee response data in their separate parts, a protocol for each interviewee was developed in which the elements of the responses were presented within the following partitions: sex of respondent, nature of the request, statement of what might happen while doing what was requested, statement of what might happen right after, statement of what might happen later, statement of what the person resisted, statement of why person resisted, and interpretation of type of loss.

Results

Consistent with the speculation set forth in this study, none of the thirty respondents were judged as identifying the change which was requested of them as the target of their resistance. Instead, each was judged as identifying an element of loss within the events and issues expected by the respondent if the respondent had engaged in the requested change. Most of the responses appeared to provide rather direct evidence of this being the case; a small number of less pointed responses required the panel's interpretation. Sample size and selection procedures here are not promotive of drawing conclusions about relationships between respondent sex and type of expected loss identified as the target of resistance. But, the types of expected loss and numbers of each sex identifying them are interesting; thus, they are presented in Table 1. Note that all expected losses were judged by the panel as falling within the personal and social categories. Therefore, the material loss category does not appear in Table 1.

One finding to extract from Table 1 is the majority of all respondents (and among the men and women separately) identified more expected losses of a personal than social nature. Within both groups, the losing of one's power over one's self to others was the major loss expected and resisted. It can also be noted that three of the eighteen women respondents identified an expected loss of the way they define themselves as the priority target for resistance while this appeared to not be a priority concern for any of the men respondents.

A more detailed understanding of the meaning of each of the categories and types of expected losses can be gained through an examination of the thirty partitioned protocols. What does seem clear from the protocols is that what may appear to be resistance to a request for change is much more complex than meets even considered observation by the agent of change. For instance, a sister's aggressive reluctance to be accepting toward her brother turns out to be a tender concern for losing her relationship with him. What appears to be a negative reaction to a request for improving a relationship is a desperate attempt to prevent a loss of self and consequential loss of love. A therapist's denial of a client's request shows itself to be a protection against losing power to be helpful to the client. A mother's reluctance to stop nagging at her daughter emerges as a means of not losing her sense of being a needed parent. A wife's refusal to cooperate with her husband evidences itself to be a resistance to the loss of a self-respected view of herself. A father's declining to fulfill his son's request to phone him turns out to be an effort at protecting himself and his son from losing an understanding relationship. And, a faculty member's continuation of non-responsible behavior paradoxically is a means of precluding a loss of positive regard from his colleagues.

Further Considerations

With full recognition of this small, exploratory study's limitations in sample size, procedures of sample selection, and possible intrusion of researcher bias, it may still function as impetus to explore further the proposed reconceptualization of adult resistance in the face of requests for change. More extensive and rigorous inquiry into the phehomenon of resistance may produce findings with important implications for the development of strategies for resistance prevention and resistance reduction in the practice of teaching, training, counseling, consultation, and planning with adults. For instance, strategy development for attracting adults to educational programs may begin to incorporate a consideration of the types of losses which adult

TABLE 1

TYPES OF EXPECTED LOSS AND NUMBER OF MEN AND WOMEN RESPONDENTS IDENTIFYING THEM AS THEIR TARGETS OF RESISTANCE

TYPE OF EXPECTED LOSS	NO. OF FEMALE RESPONDENTS (N=18)	NO OF MALE RESPONDENTS (N=12)
PERSONAL		
Own Power Over Self	5 (28%)	5 (42%)
Self-Esteem	3)17%)	2 (17%)
Self-Definition	3 (17%)	- (0%)
Principle/Belief/Morals	2 (11%)	1 (8%)
A Mask to Myself	1 (5%)	- (0)
TOTAL	14 (78%)	8 (67%)
SOCIAL		
Reputation/Social-Esteem	1 (5%)	2 (17%)
Relationship/Quality of Relationship	2 (11%)	1 (8%)
Effectiveness in Relationship with Others	- (0%)	1 (8%)
Certainty of Consequences	1 (5%)	- (0%)
TOTAL	4 (21%)	4 (33%)

clients are likely to expect, how to assess them, and how to prevent or reduce resistance toward them--as well as the more usual assessment of needs and then building helping services on the basis of them. Also, teachers of participative classes may be advised to ponder less about what techniques to use in getting members to participate and, instead, to plan more on how to help members reduce expectations of personal and social loss as a result of their participation.

In one sense, this study has proposed and tested a reframing of a phenomenon which fits the "facts" of the same concrete situation equally well or even better and thereby changes its meaning. What turns out to be potentially changed as a result of the reframing is the meaning attributed to the situation, and thus, its consequences (Watzlawick, 1974, p. 95). On the basis of the proposed reconceptualization, reluctance to further inquiry into its potential for redefining the reality of resistance may only stem from the expected loss of an old standby in the behavioral sciences.

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EXAMINING A DEVELOPMENT INTERVENTION IN PROCESS WITH OPERATORS OF SMALL FARMS

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Abstract

This paper examines a development intervention as it occurs in a nonformal setting with operators of small farms. It examines and analyzes a process for approaching a learning relationship between a paraprofessional and limited resource farmers/families in a "non-traditional" way. The "non-traditional" way means a model of extension education which adheres to a strategy where the ownership and control of the learning process is shared by the paraprofessional and the clients in collaboration. The actual practice of this strategy is presented here from the perspectives of the main actors involved in the process (i.e., the paraprofessional and the clients).

The study situation is a county in North Carolina, USA, where a paraprofessional has been working with some 39 farm families who operate small farms. A qualitative methodology is used in the study consisting of a system and process of data gathering and analysis that includes: (1) a client visit record system; (2) periodic interviews with the paraprofessional; (3) participant observation by the researcher; and (4) critical learning incidents occurring in the intervention process.

Partial results have revealed that putting a "non-traditional" extension education appoach into practice and/or putting someone to function in a "collaborative" mode with limited resource farm families is not a simple matter.

EXAMINING A DEVELOPMENT INTERVENTION IN PROCESS WITH OPERATORS OF SMALL FARMS

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Extension education systems have been established in many countries around the world in order to bring benefits to farmers and to society. The basic strategy of most of the extension systems in developing countries is a top-down technocratic mode where the technologies considered appropriate to the situations of operators of small farms are determined by researchers, translated by extension service staff and "delivered" to the farmers as representing something in their best interest if adopted by them. This model has been credited with having made remarkable achievements in some situations. However, more critical evaluation has revealed serious shortcomings. Many criticisms have pointed out extension's failure to reach limited resource farmers; it has been most successful generally with "progressive" farmers (Crouch, 198, pp. 101-104; Roling, 1976, pp. 68-76). Many scholars are pointing to a growing "gap" in the rate of development between the "less progressive" farmers and the "progressive" farmers (Adiseshiah, 1982, pp. 61-63).

The critical analysis now being directed at what is being referred to as "traditional" extension education models has several implications for this research. First, it points to the possible need for new research strategies that can shed light on the problems of "less progressive" farmers. Second, although efforts have already begun in this direction, there is still a lack of systematic empirical inquiry into what strategies can work with operators of small farms, and how such strategies can facilitate the learning process.

There is a growing interest in an alternate "non-traditional" approach in extension education. This alternative adheres to a strategy where the ownership and control of the learning process is shared by the extension agent and clientele in collaboration, meaning that the farm and farmer problems are to be determined through a collaboration between the clients and the extension agent. This collaboration is to involve the determination of technologies that can be mutually judged to be most potentially appropriate and useful. Theoretically, scholars have various perspectives and descriptions of this approach. The most common ideas found in the literature include: (1) the approach is an educative process (Dobson, 1981); (2) involvement of participants in the learning proces is critical (Crone, 1980, p. 1; Hollnsteiner, 1976; Morss, 1976, pp. 221-223); and (4) there are different learning orientations, depending on the learning situations, participants, and emphasis given by various learning strategies. They all suggest that the least fortunate, if given the opportunity, have the capability to learn to solve problems that affect them (Bordenave, 1976, p. 59; Crouch, 1981, p. 68; Tully, 1966). Proponents of this collaborative model claim that this is an intervention strategy which is effective with operators of small farms.

Focus and Methodology

This study is not directed at reaching conclusions that may prove or disprove such a claim. Its primary interest is in looking at the intervention in process. It asks the following questions: What is the nature of this strategy? How is the intervention process empirically experienced by the main actors? The focus is on examining and analyzing the process of approaching a learning relationship between an extension agent and client in a "non-traditional" way.

The study situation is a county in North Carolina, USA, where a paraprofessional has been working with some 39 operators of small farms. A qualitative methodology is being used, applying a variety of research techniques that solicit the combined perceptions of the main actors directly involved in the intervention process. The methodology, consisting of a system and process of data gathering and analysis, includes: (1) a client visit record system (i.e., the paraprofessional's records and files of every visit made with individual clients); (2) periodic interviews with the paraprofessional; (3) the researcher's observations of the paraprofessional-client interactions during farm visits (referred to as participant-as-observer methodology); and (4) successful/unsuccessful learning experiences of the clients as perceived by the paraprofessional and by the clients (critical incidents) (Keregero, 1981).

Discussion

To date, two-thirds of the data have been collected. These data form the basis for this discussion. The discussion of results is based on an analysis of observations made (1) from the perspective of the paraprofessional; (2) from the perspective of the clients; and (3) synthesis and conclusion.

From the perspective of the paraprofessional, three main areas of interest will be discussed: (1) the development of her working relationship with the clients; (2) the results and progress of that working relationship ; and (3) the problems being encountered. The data indicate that the paraprofessional has gone through a variety of experiences. As she began her work, she had mixed feelings of excitement and fear; she did not know what she would face. "Will the clients accept me or not?" was a big question for her. Having had no previous experience in this kind of work, her strategy was to be open and to take the problems as they came. The most significant experiences she had during the initial phase of her work included: (1) meeting the clients and getting to know them, and (2) coping with the fact that the majority of the clients did not talk about farming. They brought up personal problems (like food stamps, health problems, and the like). "This made me wonder about when I could help them with farming." As a means to start something, she offered to help them with soil-testing. She felt uncomfortable with a few of the clients because they were "cold" to her. She attributed their "coldness" to some personality factor.

Towards the end of the first year of work, data show that the work relationship which had developed between the paraprofessional and the clients was reflected in a mixture of experiences. For one thing, a relationship was developed to the extent that the paraprofessional felt comfortable in discussing things with the majority of the clients. She had the impression that the majority of them were not open with her. She was dissatisfied with this status because she suspected that they were holding back from her certain things she needed to know if she was to be of any help. "They did not know what to say when I asked if there was anything I could do." For her, this lack of openness might have been due to shyness or suspiciousness (her being a "government agent"), or their being "set in their ways." Second, the paraprofessional experienced disappointments in her soil-testing activities. She said that most of those who soil-tested did not follow the recommendations because either they believed the "old fertilizers" worked better, or their landlord would not help them invest in liming, or they were not willing to take financial risks. Other disappointments included those clients who would not soil-test, those whom she would not find at home in her visits, those watching TV during her visits. One the positive side, she was pleased with a few who followed recommendations on the soil-tests.

After two-and-a-half years, variable working relationships and results have emerged. Analysis of the data indictes five major experiences:

1. The relationship has not developed favorably and has not improved over time. The reasons given were: client is "always hard to talk with...hardly get any conversation with him"; client is a "good talker, just that"; client is "not taking me seriously as someone who may be able to help him"; client is "never found at home"; "I don't think the trust was ever there."

2. The relationship has developed well but no progress or change is noted. This was attributed to such things as: "I talk with the wife most of the time, and she does not make decisions on the farm"; client is "not doing much farming, although asks questions"; "client and I just have good talking relationship"; "client does not ask questions on farming"; client is "on top of things and financially better-off...a pretty good farmer"; "he is a let-me-do-it-myself-knows-it-all type, I don't know if I can even suggest anything"; client "just does not want change."

3. The relationship has developed slowly and there are some positive results coming. This is reflected by the following: client "asks questions and seeks for information"; client "cooperated with setting up a test plot"; "the relationship was slow at first, but he has come out after the soil-testing"; "we've had a good relationship but most of his concerns are non-agricultural"; "any help I can give him on agriculture he will listen to."

4. There are reasons for being pleased with the relationship and the progress of work with some clients: client "asks questions, asks for information, follows recommendations"; "trust has developed...open with me on agricultural and non-agricultural problems"; client is the "type who's willing to try new things"; client is "a bit shy but will ask if he needs to."

5. The relationship has gone "downhill." This was due to "personal/family problems which are touchy and in which I don't want to get myself involved"; "in the beginning the client was a good person to talk with, but now I wonder if he wants me to visit him...he's the type who doesn't take advice."

From the perspective of the clients, the discussion will focus on: (1) impressions the clients have of the paraprofessional and her work with them; (2) clients' perceptions in terms of benefits they have gotten from the paraprofessional's work; and (3) clients' perceptions of "failures" at attempts by the paraprofessional to help them learn or change. The data indicate that the great majority of the clients hold a favorable impression of the paraprofessional as a person and in her manner of dealing with them. The clients described their favorable impressions in various ways. "She's friendly," "a nice person." "She didn't seem to be prejudiced." She makes them feel free to call on her for whatever information, problems, needs that they may have. For this reason the data reveal that more and more of the clients call by phone or visit the paraprofessional in her office. "She'd try to do everything she could to help. She couldn't get everything but she tried." "She's really interested and really wants to help small farmers in any way she can." "It's nice to have somebody interested in what you are doing." "She's like a member of the family." "She's someone from the outside with expertise. She had interest in taking her time out to help me in my farming... ."

Only one client had some "negative" remarks about the paraprofessional, not as a person, but as a "technician." The farmer remarked: "I don't see how she can help us with anything. We've farmed all our life and learned through experience and working with our hands. She gets them from the books which somebody else has written. This is nothing against her, she's a nice person."

In terms of the benefits that clients perceived to have accrued to them attributable to the paraprofessional's work with them, the data indicate several things. The most common are:

1. In the area of technical agriculture, the soil-testing assistance is one example. This has led to changes in the quality/quantity of fertilizers used by the farmers which the clients claimed had saved them some money. Another example is the variety of information that clients received from the paraprofessional related to farming. Clients remarked: "She'd find information out for you. She knows some of the things I didn't know, and what I didn't know, and what she didn't know, she could find them out for me and let me know. She was a big help."

2. In the area of non-agriculture, different benefits have been perceived by the clients. Two clients said that they were assisted with home repairs for better heating during the winter times. Some clients read about recipes, canning and freezing pointers from the newsletters the paraprofessional was regularly sending them. A client was appreciative of the paraprofessional saying, "I felt good I was able to consult her with my decisions."

The data also show that the clients perceived, in several occasions, that the paraprofessional tried to introduce ideas to them in the hope that they would act and would lead to some beneficial results. Somehow the clients claimed that they could not actualize the ideas for various reasons: (1) lack of financial resources; (2) landlord not helping them with procurement of some inputs; (3) clients were "set in thir ways"; (4) being sick; (5) did not farm too long; (6) "old fertilizers worked better in this type of land"; (7) no equipment; (8) did not take any advice from anyone other than their experience.

Synthesis and Conclusion

The preceding discussion focused on the paraprofessional's and the clients' perspectives on what has been occurring in the intervention process. Both views are sine-qua-non in this study precisely because what is being observed is how a "collaborative relationship" is developing and how effectively it may be working with the clientele. Getting the view from all the main actors of the learning process seems to provide a better understanding of the phenomenon.

From the perspective of the paraprofessional, the work seems to be going painfully slow and at times discouraging and disappointing. The paraprofessional remarked: "It seems like I'm still trying to be working on simple, small things. But farmers don't take the initiative to do things. I've been going out week after week. It makes me wonder whether it's me. I don't seem to be effective. Perhaps I'm the type of person who likes to see things happen fast, but things are not happening that fast." This remark was said in spite of several worthwhile accomplishments that the paraprofessional had made with some clients.

From the perspective of the clients, their favorable comments of the paraprofessional manifest a genuine appreciation for what she has been trying to do with them. There are benefits that they have cited attributable to the paraprofessional's efforts. They have also mentioned some "failures" which to their view were beyond the paraprofessional's control.

Already this inquiry has illuminated the fact that learning to approach a "collaborative relationship" (i.e., the paraprofessional striving to learn how to make the "non-traditional" extension education approach effective in pursuing learning objectives) is not a simple matter for the main actors involved. Also, the nature of the "collaborative relationship" seems to vary with each and every individual client with various degrees of development and results. Finally, this study has provided the researchers with an empirically tested meaningful system of looking at an intervention in process using a qualitative methodology applying several data gathering and analytical techniques.

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MOTIVATION AND REWARDS OF ADULTS PURSUING GRADUATE DEGREES

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MOTIVATION AND REWARDS OF ADULTS PURSUING GRADUATE DEGREES

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to ascertain the needs, motivations, and rewards of graduate students enrolled in masters and doctoral level adult and community education courses at Ball State University.

The study was designed to answer the following research questions:

1. What were the characteristics of graduate students enrolled in adult and community education courses at Ball State University in the Spring Quarters of 1983 and 1984?
2. What were the adult education needs and activities of the employers of these graduate students?
3. What were the relationships among graduate student employment and their return to college?
4. What factors motivated and rewarded these graduates to continue their education?
5. What were the short and long-term goals of these graduate students?
6. How were the family relationships of these graduate students effected by their return to formal education?

POPULATION AND METHODOLOGY

The 1983 study collected interview data from 61 graduate students enrolled in on-campus or off-campus graduate classes in adult and community education. Faculty or doctoral students of the Center for Lifelong Education at Ball State University collected the data from thirty-one males and thirty females. Students were interviewed during class time and in nearby class rooms.

The 1984 study used the interview data of 1983 to construct a 25 item questionnaire. Some concepts in 1983 items were omitted in 1984. The questionnaires were distributed to students during class time by instructors, completed and returned to the Center for Lifelong Education. There were 57 males and 77 females enrolled in adult and community education classes on campus and in two off-campus military locations.

FINDINGS

The following results are drawn from the 1983 and 1984 studies:

1983 N=61 Interviews	1984 N=134 Questionnaires
1. The population contained one more man than woman, was diverse in ages, backgrounds, personal goals and occupations. Twenty-three percent were unemployed. Age ranged from 23 to 65 with a mean of 36 years.	1. The 1984 population of 134 persons was over 57%, female (77). A larger percent (89%) were employed, perhaps a result of strengthening economy. Age ranged from 22 to 65 and the mean was 33 years.
2. Women were placing greater emphasis on academic skills, knowledge, and processes than were men. Men were placing greater emphasis on improved interpersonal skills. When asked to describe themselves men mentioned their occupations first. Women listed personal traits before stating their occupations.	2. No data were gathered on this topic in the 1984 study.
3. The men were most often involved in occupations related to business, industry, or the military. Women were most often in health related fields or education. Approximately half were completing degrees in adult and community education.	3. Women were in health or education fields. The men's occupations were different from those in 1983: 52% were in educational fields - teaching, administration, 22% in the military and 7% in business fields. The number completing degrees outside of adult and community education increased.
4. Factors which influenced students to continue their educations included:	4. Factors motivating student persisted:
a) the proximity of the University so they could commute at reasonable costs in mileage and time,	a) the proximity of the University,
b) the flexibility of the programs allowing them to select courses they judged useful,	b) availability of night classes,
c) the applicability of concepts learned to their employment or/and their interpersonal relationships,	c) flexibility of programs,

d) the desire to improve their professional skills, and	d) improved professional competence,
e) life transitions often closely related to employment/unemployment or/and their interpersonal relationships,	e) preparation for new positions,
	f) threat of unemployment was lower but long range job security was still a motivating factor.
5. With the exception of two all reported strong support from at least one family member and involvement in attaining their educational goals. Many also reported one or more family members with reservations or in opposition to their taking classes. Often opposition came from children who judged they were getting less parent time and/or had additional chores because a parent had to study.	5. There were important differences between the groups in reporting family support. five percent reported that their families were opposed to their attending college, 20% of the families were neutral and 73% reported family support for attending graduate classes. Still many family members were inconvenienced by the student's school related activities.
6. The graduate students did not expect that their increased education would impact their current salaries although they judged that continuing their educations to completion of degrees would prepare them find new positions or new responsibilities.	6. Thirty-five percent of the 1984 group reported that their graduate degree would produce increases in pay of about $1,000 per year. Seven percent expected a moderate increase in pay of about $500 per year. Twenty-three percent were uncertain and 31% judged that the graduate degree would not affect their future slaries if they stayed in their present jobs. Further, 26% of the participants judged the graduate degree was important in maintaining their employment: 40% judged that a graduate degree was not necessary to continue

	their current employment. Forty-eight percent received some financial support from their employer to defray education expenses; 29% had their tuition paid. 7% had all their direct education expenses covered.
7. The most important educational goals for both the short and intermediate term goals were course and degree completion. Personal goals often included attention to improving the quality of their relationships to family members.	7. Thirty-two percent of the participants were doing graduate work because in the next 3 to 5 years they intend to increase the quality of their job performances, 41% intend to qualify for new employment, 11% to prepare for further study and 12% listed other goals.
8. The greatest costs of participation in graduate education were reduction in personal and family time, scheduling of remaining time, and balancing job, school and family responsibilities.	8. The 1984 study supports the findings of 1983. Thirty-four percent of the participants judged that as students they have less time for their families. Twelve percent reported that their families must assume responsibilities which the participants previously assumed. 14% reported an increased financial burden on the family for books, tuition, and commuting. 37% judged that becoming a student had caused little change in their families' lives.
9. An important reward was the strong positive response by the graduate students to the quality of interactions with other students and faculty members which enhanced their education.	9. The 1984 study substantiates the findings of the 1983 study in that 44% reported that fellow students contributed extensively to their learning. 41% reported that fellow students contributed to a limited extent - 11% felt that they neither added or detracted.

CONCLUSIONS

1. Data collected by interviews in the respondents' choice of words are unique to each respondent. When these oral data are combined by such means as classifying degrees of need or support and quantifying responses that fall along a continium in oral responses the data are more understandable much of the richness of individuals disappears and a less precisely described group emerges from the interview data.

   Questionnaire respondents, by choosing among responses presented, provide data that make them seem neat and decisive. The data tempt the data collector to speak with levels of certainty that the situations reported do not justify.

2. Graduate classes in Adult and Community Education at Ball State University enroll students who are in their mid thirties, hold professional or semi-professional employment, and who may change employment upon completion of graduate degrees.

3. Graduate students expect and find adult and community education classes to be vocationally helpful.

4. Graduate students use their jobs as laboratories to test the concepts learned in classes and to practice the skills needed to successfully use these concepts.

5. Graduate students value the in-class opportunities to exchange ideas with faculty and other students.

6. Graduate students are motivated by: the need to increase competencies needed in employment, anticipated changes in employment opportunities, the relatively convenient and inexpensive availability of classes, the chances to interact with graduate students and faculty members.

7. Family relationships of these graduate students: are important to them, are changing, usually include one or more family members who are supportive and also include other members who are non-supportive or opposed to the changes in family life produced by the demands of successful graduate work.

RESEARCH ON INTERAGENCY COOPERATION AMONGST ADULT EDUCATION PROVIDERS: THE STATE OF THE ART

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As we approach the twenty-first century, there are economic, demographic and political forces such as new technologies, burgeoning numbers of persons seeking continuing education, demands to educationally serve new areas and populations and declining financial resources which are confronting providers of adult education. Within this environment, agencies are faced with a decision to increase either competition or cooperation to meet those challenges. Competition is costly and often results in program redundancy whereas cooperation may provide a means to enhance opportunities cost-effectively.

Consortia of adult education agencies are one example of a societal trend toward cooperative inter-organizational alliances which allow a range of responses as environmental conditions warrant (Toffler, 1980). These alliances allow appropriate and timely adaptation to societal changes necessary for maintenance of a viable and vital operation. Consortia have been demonstrated to provide expanded and improved education opportunities for adults (Herdendorf, 1981) and improved accessibility of programs (Powell, 1979). It has also been argued that the consortium provides a means by which to alleviate the disparity between unlimited needs and limited, shrinking resources as well as to overcome the institutional model in order to better serve a non-elite mass clientele (Patterson, F. 1974).

In order to assess these claims about the promise of consortia to enhance adult education opportunities, this paper has been developed as a report on the state of the art of research on consortia. It is based upon a review of the literature on this topic produced between 1964 and 1984. That literature deals primarily with consortia of higher education institutions although it is relevant to other adult education settings. The bulk of the literature addresses policy-making and administrative issues.

THE STATE OF THE ART

To date, consortia and their impact upon either adult or higher education have not been the subject of much in-depth research. The literature on consortia has been criticized for "too little theoretical consideration" (Martin, 1981, p. 39) and little has changed since Herbert Wood (1971) described the research on consortia as primitive. Few attempts have been made to comprehensively assess or critically analyze the consortium movement. The literature is descriptive, prescriptive and exhortative. One reason offered for the lack of more comprehensive research is the complexity and diversity of this topic which has resulted in a number of aborted studies (Patterson, L.D., 1975).

The most notable contribution to the literature is based upon extensive document analyses and interviews with higher education consortia leaders (Patterson, F. 1974). In comparing the reality of consortia to their promise, Patterson criticizes institutional presidents and faculty for clinging to autonomy which has impeded attempts at meaningful cooperation. He concludes that, while consortia have not yet lived up to their promise, they still represent a means to accomplish substantial change in the delivery of quality educational opportunities.

Franklin Patterson's suggestion that research be conducted on the cost-effectiveness of consortia resulted in such a two-year study (Patterson, L.D., 1979) funded by the Carnegie Corporation of New York. This study represents a second attempt at a comprehensive analysis of one aspect of the consortia phenomenon. Unfortunately, the complexity and variety of consortia arrangements as well as lack of uniformity on how cost analyses are conducted resulted in a report which lacks synthesis. In addition, the case studies involved in this research were written by consortia directors who seem to argue a point rather than offer a critical analysis.

The two studies above unfortunately are the exception as most research has been of lesser scope and focused upon definition of consortia and the concerns confronting them. The most utilized method of studying consortia is the survey. Most of the surveys have involved only a surface analysis, concerned with numbers and definitive characteristics. The more productive studies have involved the case study approach such as the Patterson study just mentioned, which has provided a means of gaining some depth of analysis in overcoming the complexity and variation of the phenomenon.

While there is no agreed upon definition of consortia, the most accepted listing of membership criteria is the set outlined by Lewis D. Patterson for inclusion in a series of consortia directories (Connick and LaRocco, 1983). Those criteria are 1) voluntary formal organization, 2) two or more members, 3) multi-purpose goals, 4) a professional director and 5) continuing membership support. Applying these criteria, 134 consortia were identified in the United States in 1983. A 1975 survey (Medsker) of higher education institutions found that 1,200 colleges and universities were involved in one or more consortia. Many of the researchers have developed typologies to differentiate consortia on such factors as membership mix and mission. Several surveys have been conducted to identify activities common to consortia. McKeefery (1978) identified over 100 activites intended to improve access and distribution of programs, as well as to use funds and human resources more effectively in the face of public resistance to new programs.

The most popular subject of study has been identificaiton of success factors and the barriers to success. Typical listings of barriers include the threat to autonomy, lack of presidential support and diversity of mission while success factors often focus upon very specific aspects of administration such as desirable characteristics for consortium directors. Frampton Davis (1969) criticized this reductionist approach to research on consortia stating that the research lacked conceptualization capable of assessing the potential of consortia to promote substantial institutional change. Another criticism which may be made of the attempts to identify success factors is the failure to define success. There is lack of a sense of what is expected of consortia and how they are to be evaluated. It may well be that the difference between promise and reality referred to by Franklin Patterson is due to overly optimistic claims which are unrelated to real-world expectations for consortia. As is far too often the case with innovation, the consortium is expected to be a panacea for all problems. The lack of clear conceptualization of the mission of consortia has unquestionably confounded evaluative research efforts.

Recently there has been some effort to begin the development of a theory of inter-agency cooperation (Rose, 1982). While the effort has been limited, it is important because it is the first attempt to move beyond a reliance upon organizational theory, in particular the open systems concept, as a theoretical base. Utilizing organizational theory, the consortium has been conceptualized as a means to provide a more flexible, adaptive response to a rapidly changing world. Society has been depicted as moving from a top-down industrial hierarchical organizational model to a flatter structure more capable of reacting to environmental changes (Toffler, 1980). Collaboration, based upon trust, problem solving and a tolerance of ambiguity, has been described as a means of maximizing effectiveness and individual potential through control of counter-productive competition (Kraus, 1980). These concepts of cooperation and consorting, provide a launching point for potentially more thoughtful analysis of this phenomenon.

The potential for more thoughtful analysis raises the hope that research on consortia may achieve a level at which it will usefully inform practice. While widely divergent in settings and purposes, existing cooperative ventures share sufficient commonalities to allow relevant research opportunities.

The process of achieving effective cooperation amongst individuals is complex in intself. That complexity is multiplied when collaboration is attempted amongst organized groups of individuals such as the adult education agency or institution. Yet the promise for such efforts is great and the relevance of a cooperative stance may be argued to be particularly appropriate to adult educators. Study of the dynamics of inter-organizational behavior as well as its effectiveness in improving access and financial advantage for adult education programs has the potential of being not only relevant to the practitioner but capable of bringing about change in the administrative practices of adult education agencies.

If research on consortia is to effectively inform practice and facilitate attainment of consortia's great promise, there is a need both for analysis and synthesis of the consortia experience. Specifically, there is a need to assess consortia effectiveness in terms of educational opportunities and financial cost-savings. There is also a need to develop a theoretical base to improve the conceptualization and management of consortia. The complexity and difficulty of attaining meaningful inter-agency cooperation demand an understanding of the dynamics of such inter-organizational behavior. This will be attained only if research on this experience moves beyond mere surface analysis describing the characteristics and magnitude of the phenomenon.

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DETERMINING INTENTIONS TO PARTICIPATE IN CONTINUING EDUCATION: A THEORY OF REASONED ACTION

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One of the most salient characteristics of adult and continuing education is the individual learner's ability to choose whether or not to participate in any given learning activity. This characteristic markedly distinguishes continuing education (CE) from most fields of educational practice, and explains why the issue of participation is a central concern to both practitioners and researchers in the field. This paper describes a social psychological theory which offers researchers a means of understanding and predicting CE participation, and offers practitioners a means of increasing it.

RESEARCH ON PARTICIPATION

The literature of CE participation is dominated by descriptive studies which ask such questions as: "who participates?" and "In what educative activities do they participate?" These studies rely heavily on the analysis of demographic characteristics of participants and nonparticipants. This line of inquiry has provided a good description of who participates and who does not, as well as the knowledge of what demographic factors (i.e. age, formal education) tend to be most predictive of participation. This knowledge is a good basis for explanatory research but as Cross (1981) points out, is far from an explanation of why adults participate in CE (p. 80). Darkenwald and Merriam (1982) also refer to the limited predictive and explanatory value of demographic variables and state that "Little is known about the fundamental factors . . . that affect an individual's decision to participate . . . ." (p. 26)

Increasingly important are explanatory studies which ask the question "why do people participate?" One school of explanatory research emphasized factors thought to motivate participation. Studies by Houle (1961) and Tough (1968) prompted much research on "motivators" but this line of inquiry produced neither understanding of why adults participate in CE (Boshier, 1976; Tough, 1978), nor successful prediction of participation (Scanlan and Darkenwald, 1984). A second school studied the effects of factors thought to be barriers to participation. These researchers focused on adults' perception of barriers, or on changes in actual behavior where supposed barriers had either increased or decreased in strength. These methods produced ". . . different answers and certainly different perspectives . . ." (Cross, 1981, p. 108) and have limited utility for explaining or predicting participation.

Several scholars have produced explanatory models which include both motivators and barriers to CE participation (Cross, 1981). While the inclusion of both positive and negative factors represents an advance over previous formulations, these models fall short of the criteria for evaluation of theory: 1) testability, 2) clarity, and 3) parsimony (Bailey, 1978). A useful theory--meeting the above criteria--is clearly needed to advance explanatory research on participation, and has been called for by numerous scholars, most recently Cross (1981) and Darkenwald and Merriam (1982).

A THEORY OF REASONED ACTION

Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) have described a theory of behavior which meets the Bailey criteria and which has been empirically tested with numerous behavioral domains and populations. Though proposed for CE research by Grotelueschen and Caulley (1977), and used as the basis for a qualitative study (Parochka, 1981), the Fishbein theory has yet to be fully applied in CE participation research.

Conceptual Definitions of the Variables

Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) have made distinctions among the concepts of belief, attitude, intention, and behavior. They define "belief" as a cognition linking an "attitude object" with a given quality or attribute. (This "attitude object" can be a person, place, or thing; an institution, set of values, or a behavior—any discriminable part of the universe.) They define "attitude" as a general feeling of favorability or unfavorability toward an attitude object. They define "intention" as a special kind of belief which links the person to the performance of a behavior. They define "behavior" as an overt act which can be observed and studied in its own right. (The behaviors of concern to this theory are volitional, social behaviors.) They also distinguish among single behaviors, behavioral categories, and behavioral outcomes. While registering for a conference is a behavior, participating in the conference is a category of separate behaviors, and increased knowledge would be a behavioral outcome.

Relations Among the Variables

The theory of reasoned action posits that a given behavior (B) is immediately determined by an intention (I) to perform that behavior. The intention is determined by two factors, one personal and one social. The personal factor is the individual's attitude (A) toward performing the behavior. The social factor is the individual's perception of social pressure (from "significant others") to perform or not perform the behavior, and is labeled the subjective norm (SN). Attitude is usually more important than subjective norm in the determination of intention, but this differs across behaviors and population. Empirical weights for the relative values of each are obtained through multiple regression. The relationship among behavior (B), intention (I), attitude (A), and subjective norm (SN) is expressed:

$$B \quad I = (A)_{w1} + (SN)_{w2}$$

The attitude toward performing the behavior is determined by the strength of probability beliefs (b) about possible outcomes of performing the behavior, and by the person's evaluation (e) of those outcomes. Although five to nine outcome beliefs are thought to be most important to the formation of a person's attitude, people will form attitudes based on fewer beliefs when they have little information about the attitude object. Generally, about 15 beliefs are salient for most populations and behaviors. This relationship is expressed:

$$A = \overset{n}{\underset{i=1}{}} b_i \, e_i$$

The subjective norm (SN) is immediately determined by the strength of probability beliefs (b) about the desires of "significant others" that the person perform or not perform the behavior, and the person's motivation-to-comply (m_c) with those desires. About five "significant others" are commonly salient for most populations and behaviors. The determination of subjective norm is expressed:

$$SN = \overset{n}{\underset{i=1}{}} b_i \, m_{ci}$$

The attitudinal component of intention tends to be the stronger in behavioral domains salient to the person, or in which the person has more information. For example, studies of voting behavior have shown attitude to be the more important in high salience presidential elections and subjective norm to be the more important in low salience county elections. Relative weights can also vary depending on the specific behavior and the individual's general response to social expectation. Studies of intentions to engage in pre-marital sexual intercourse (among college students) have found that boys' intentions were relatively more determined by normative pressure, while girls' intentions were relatively more determined by attitude.

THE PROBLEM OF PARTICIPATION

In recent review of the status of CE participation research, Darkenwald and Merriam (1982) urged scholars interested in *why* adults participate in CE, to focus their research on:

> . . . the most basic and encompassing issue, which has to do not with reasons for taking a course or generalized motivational orientations, but with the decision to participate . . . . (p. 130)

There are problems, however, with the conceptual and operational definitions of "participation" as commonly used by CE researchers. Rockhill (1982) has urged researchers to stop thinking of participation as a dichotomous variable, and view it as the continuous variable it is in reality.

Cross (1981, p. 125) has noted that participation is not a single act, or the result of a single decision, but the *result* of a chain of responses (i.e., decisions) to the environment. Cross's conceptualization is compatible with the discrimination between behaviors and behavioral categories made by Ajzen and Fishbein (1980, pp. 30-33). They define a behavior as a single, overt, observable act, such as drinking coffee without cream. They define a behavioral category as a set of related behaviors, such as dieting to lose weight. (These behaviors might include counting calories, eating half-size portions, and weighing oneself daily.) Behavioral categories cannot be observed directly, but must be inferred from observable single behaviors believed to be instances of the behavioral category.

In thinking about why adults participate in CE, it may be useful to view participation as a behavioral category comprising a number of distinct behaviors. In the context of formal CE programs, these behaviors might include reading a catalogue for information on available programs, registering for a particular program, entering the room where the program is held, listening to a lecture, and asking questions. Each meaningful behavior is preceded by a decision to perform that behavior. Therefore, the "decision to participate" in CE is actually a number of decisions, some no doubt more important and worthy of study than others. Of all these behaviors, the behavior of registering for a particular program appears to require the greatest commitment, and may be the most appropriate focus for research which seeks to understand why adults participate.

The thorny issue of persistence in CE appears to be a subset of the issue of participation. From the perspective of Fishbein's theory, participation could be seen as the result of a *series* of intentions and resultant behaviors. As the acquisition of new information prior to the behavior can alter the intention, it is understandable that a number of CE participants do not persist.

IMPLICATIONS

The use of theory of reasoned action could make an important contribution to research on CE participation. Fishbein's theory offers numerous advantages over the formulations and models which have been proposed to date, including: 1) it is theory-based, widely empirically-tested, 2) it has clear relationships among its components, 3) it is easily testable and offers clear operational definitions, 4) it has parsimony. These factors make possible highly comparable studies which could build towards a unified body of knowledge explaining CE participation, just as there is a unified body of knowledge describing CE participation. The research-based understanding of participation made possible by the theory will guide practitioners to ways in which changes in program design, procedures, planning and promotion can bring about increased participation.

While use of the theory can be advantageous to CE practice in general, it may be especially useful in CPE programming for the professions, professionalizing vocations, and other groups which make conscious use of an information process. An information process is the means by which a field of practice discovers, certifies, organizes, disseminates, applies and evaluates information new to that field.

The theory has obvious utility at the dissemination stage of the information process, especially for increasing participation and persistence in CE programs. However, the application stage also presents opportunities for the theory's use. An interesting research question, and ultimately a crucial question for CPE practice, is whether or not CPE participation results in actual improvement of the learner's practice. Some research has been done on this question (see Haynes, et.al., 1984) and demands for accountability of CPE may well result in an increase in such inquiry. The theory of reasoned action could be used to study the intentions of professionals to apply new information to their practice, with the research results providing invaluable data for changes in programming to enhance utilization.

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TEACHING PARENTS TO TEACH ENGLISH

The Effects of a Training Program for Parents, Designed in Accordance with the Principles of Adult Learning, on the Language-Skill Achievement of Seventh-Graders

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TEACHING PARENTS TO TEACH ENGLISH

Background

During the past eighteen months alone, there have been eleven major studies of the problems being faced by America's public schools. The solutions suggested by these studies have already spawned many educational reforms across the country: 14 states have passed educational tax increases; 23 states have approved or are considering merit-pay for teachers; 26 states have revised their curricula; 41 states have increased graduation standards. Surprisingly absent in all these reforms--and missing from the recommendations suggested by the studies, too--is any substantive change in the schools' practice of keeping parents out of the educational process.

This omission is alarming in that, almost twenty years ago, research showed that the home was more educationally influential than school curricula or facilities (Coleman et al., 1966). This finding has been consistently confirmed by subsequent research, and it has been refined to show that it is not what the family is (its SES, for example) that determines the achievement of children; rather, it is what the family does in the home to promote intellectual growth that accounts for achievement differences in children (studies summarized in Marjoribanks, 1979).

And yet, school administrators and teachers continue to ignore the powerful contribution that parents make to their children's education, and they continue to overlook the possibility that the persistent decline in national achievement scores could be remedied by making parents more effective in teaching their own children. Parents, in fact, in spite of having been told for years that they don't know "the right way" to teach their children and that they could "damage" their children by incorrect teaching, could be the greatest untapped resource in all of education. Still, this resource remains largely untapped.

Parent and Teacher Attitudes

The contacts that parents have with teachers are almost always negative and are rarely productive (Lightfoot, 1978), and the defensiveness that teachers feel about allowing parents into the educational process has created and reinforced several persistent myths about parent involvement:

1. Most parents are not interested in teaching their children at home.

2. Only the more highly educated or more affluent parents will work with their children at home.

3. Working mothers--especially mothers who are divorced or separated--do not have time to work with their children on school-related tasks at home.

4. Classroom teachers, being highly educated themselves,

prefer to work with parents who are educated, too.

5. Parents already know, or they ought to know, how to transform home activities into opportunities for learning.

These myths persist in spite of the consistent research evidence to the contrary, and dispelling them will require a dramatic change in the attitudes that parents have about education and that teachers have about parent involvement. Such changes in attitude will come about only when teachers become aware of the benefits that can accrue from training parents to tutor their own children, and when university courses and in-service workshops are created to give teachers the skills necessary to develop parent-training programs themselves. This need for parent training, for staff development, and for program development can be met only through adult education, and adult educators can look upon parent involvement as an area filled with opportunities for applying their special knowledge and skills.

Design of the Study

To demonstrate the effectiveness of a parent-training program designed in accordance with the principles of adult learning, a study was conducted in four suburban-Chicago communities. All parents of seventh-grade children in these communities were invited to attend an eight-week training program (one evening per week) that would teach them how to improve their children's language skills. The 102 volunteers were randomly assigned to an Experimental Group (parents admitted to the training program, N = 48) and a Control Group (parents denied admittance, N = 54). This random assignment was undertaken to ensure that subsequent comparisons would be of similar groups--groups that had shown a similar interest in helping their children at home.

A pretest of vocabulary and spelling ability was administered to all seventh-graders in the four communities. The eight weeks of parent training followed the pretest, and another eight weeks were allowed for parents to implement their newly acquired skills in their homes before a posttest (identical to the pretest) was administered to all seventh-graders. The scores of Experimental Group children and the scores of Control Group children were then separated from the approximately 2,000 scores of children whose parents did not volunteer for the program.

Results of the Study

Analysis of these scores revealed that while the Control Group's total vocabulary and spelling score remained almost constant (+.19 points) over the 16 weeks between pretest and posttest, the Experimental Group showed a gain of 2.15 points. An analysis of covariance was conducted to see how much of the gains in both spelling and vocabulary could be accounted for by pretest differences in these scores. This analysis revealed that, although the gain made in vocabulary by the Experimental Group could be explained in large part by their pretest vocabulary advantage, posttest spelling improvements were *independent of pretest differences and were significant at .041.*

When parent questionnaires were analyzed to see whether the parents had actually applied the techniques taught in the program to their teaching at home, it was discovered that 32 of the 48 parents in the Experimental Group had been "active" in using the suggested methods and materials. The scores of the children of these "active" parents were analyzed, and although their total gain was larger (+2.72 points), the vocabulary gain was, again, not significant. However, *the spelling gain, irrespective of pretest differences, was significant at .022*.

Additional analysis of the parent questionnaires revealed that while only two thirds of the Experimental Group actively practiced the techniques they were taught with their children, the behaviors of the entire parent group concerning their language usage had changed dramatically. The frequency of their dictionary use, curiosity about usages they heard or read, and demands for standard usage by their children had more than doubled.

Summary

The success of this program in improving spelling achievement and in changing parent behaviors is accentuated by the fact that the program lasted only eight weeks, and only sixteen weeks elapsed between the pretest and posttest. Significant vocabulary gains may require a longer time to appear. Still, the significant gains in spelling--a technical, school-taught skill--argue that similar school-taught skills--such as mathematics, reading, or general science--can be appreciably enhanced by training parents in their teaching.

This study has demonstrated one way in which adult education can be applied in meeting the need for greater parent involvement in the education of their children. Adult educators could make important contributions toward improving public education by developing in-service workshops for teachers who are interested in greater parent involvement and by creating undergraduate courses in adult learning and parent programming for pre-service teachers. Local districts and state governments should be encouraged to establish an Office of Parent Programs that would be responsible for staff development and the coordination of programs offered to parents.

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ACCOMMODATING THE ADULT UNDERGRADUATE

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ACCOMMODATING THE ADULT UNDERGRADUATE

I. Statement of the Problem

Economic and social forces are stimulating adults over the age of twenty-three to enter college on part-time or full time bases. These persons may have needs and expectations which are different from college students ages 18 to 23. They also may have purposes differing from those held by their age groups of ten years ago. These purposes include needs for additional successes in formal education, usually completion of a degree that leads directly to employment.

During 1983-84 individual interviews were used to collect data from 44 students over the age of 23 and in their first quarter of college enrollment to: 1) determine the backgrounds they bring to college, 2) determine their expectations and 3) as bases for providing experiences to increase their chances for success. The research questions were:

1. What events influenced persons over 23 years of age to enroll in college?
2. What are the educational and career goals of these students?
3. What are the relationships between employment and college enrollment of these students?
4. What competencies do students over 23 years of age intend to acquire in college?
5. How do the activities of being students influence the personal lives of these students.

If successes in formal education are increasingly important for occupational, economic and personal success in an information based society, colleges may need to modify programs and services to increase the chances that competent persons over the ages of 23 do succeed in college.

II. Methodology

The Center for Lifelong Education offers courses to non-traditional (over the age of 23) students entering undergraduate programs. The first of these is a two-quarter hour course that teaches the survival skills of successfully entering college, renews study skills, strengthens basic competencies in communications and mathematics and helps with needed adjustments in personal lives on and off campus.

Forty-four students enrolled in this course over three consecutive quarters were interviewed using interview items based on the research questions. Interviews were conducted during the eighth week of an eleven-week quarter.

Similar data had been collected from classes of men and all women prior to 1979. Interview items which had previously yielded important data were kept. Items were added to systematically verify or deny what teachers were observing informally and to confirm or deny education and employment forces we suspected were influencing these learners' educations.

III. Data Analysis

The structured interview guide used to collect data grouped questions according to our five research questions. The forty-four responses to each item were sorted with similar responses combined. The reduced lists of responses were placed on a grid with collected responses down the slide. Across the top of the grid were the quarter of class enrollment and with respondents also classified by sex.

Data were contrasted and compared. Specific reporting questions were developed to group data. Implications and conclusions were drawn from the reporting statements.

Data were analyzed by the sex of the respondent, the age group (23-28, 29-32, 33-38, 39 and over) and whether the respondent was currently employed.

IV. Findings

Persons over twenty-three years of age gave multiple responses in reporting the events which influenced them to enroll in college. Thirty-four percent judged that for a combination of reasons "now" was the right time and provided the best opportunity for enrollment. (The thirty percent who were unemployed belong to this group.) Thirty percent judged they were employed in dead end jobs, and intended to get new employment upon completion of their degrees. Twenty percent were parents of grown children or had lessened responsibility concerning their children. Sixteen percent had recent changes in marital status, through divorce, or remarriage. Closely related were twenty-three percent who judged a degree would increase their potential to make money, a similar number saw college as the way to a better future. Other influencing events were vocational or economic. However, several gave personal or social reasons. Illustrative are: "desire to help others," "my friends have degrees," "I'm proving to my family that I'm bright," and "I enjoy school."

Twenty-three persent were aiming for careers requiring four year degrees. Seventy-three percent intended to complete a degree within the next five years. Forty-five percent hope to have major changes in family status (marital, children, relationships strengthened) and thirty-four percent are anticipating financial adequacy as they complete degrees. Thirty-two percent expect their educations to lead to better jobs and improved self-concepts.

Short term goals (both personal and educational) were specific and almost immediate. Fifty-nine percent wanted to complete or pass their current courses with good grades. Thirty-four percent were striving for self-improvement in both academic and personal areas (physical fitness, etc.) Sixteen percent hoped to get jobs or to work more hours, and twenty percent planned to improve relationships within their families.

Seventy-seven percent anticipate getting new jobs upon completion of their degrees. Sixty-one percent do not know if their salaries will be influenced by the degree. Sixteen percent judged that college would improve their communication skills and make them more knowledgeable and marketable for future employment.

Thirty percent of the students interviewed were unemployed. Fifty-eight percent of those employed indicated that their present employers offered some form of assistance for their education. (This included tuition reimbursement, work hour rearrangement, or even encouragement.) Thirty-two percent said that their employers gave them no financial assistance or oral encouragement. Sixty-eight percent have been offered either on-the-job training or inservice training by their employers.

Nearly all students interviewed indicated that they hoped to improve their communication skills and their self-image through their educational endeavors. They hoped to learn to be better people and parents, and expected that college experiences would help them to learn to manage and enjoy time more effectively.

As expected, nearly all students judged that their educational experiences were influencing their personal lives. Eighty-two percent had received great support from both family and friends. Eleven percent sensed that their children were having problems adjusting, and five percent indicated that some members of their family and some friends were neutral to hostile to their attending school. Eleven percent had already experienced improvements in their self-concepts and eighteen percent realized that their time management skills still needed to be improved.

V. Applications of findings:

1. University departments providing programs of high interest to employed students over age 23 should schedule one or two courses sequentially in the evenings and each quarter to serve part-time students who will take up to ten years to complete a degree program.

2. Some faculty and student services personnel must schedule their office hours to be available prior to, during and after evening classes to serve non-traditional students.

3. Most non-traditional students are very serious about college success, and see college as a vocational school that will prepare them for employment. They perceive themselves as starting late and needing to make up for lost time. General education is viewed as delaying rather than contributing to their purposes. The usefulness of general education should be demonstrated by integrating general education concepts into vocational courses with each faculty member utilizing and illustrating the virtues of general education as he/she teaches the "vocational" content.

4. The beginning course (EDAC 101) is judged to be very valuable in these ways:

    a) situations relating to starting college are examined with others who hold similar fears, reservations and determinations.

    b) learning-to-learn skills are strengthened increasing their confidence in their abilities to succeed.

    d) they begin to see themselves as potentially achieving their goals even though they will never become (or need to become) the stereotypical coed or college "joe".

    e) they become acquainted with how to succeed in the bureaucracy of the university.

5. Because of their singleness of purpose, and the price they feel they are paying in time and reduced family (and other interpersonal) contacts, they resent more intensely than most students when advisement enrolls them in a class they don't "need" or when course content or quality of teaching is poor. Yet they are

less likely to register their resentments effectively because of lack of skills, fear of possible retaliation and closed offices when they are on campus.

6. The university at each area (or preferably as one institution) of service, administration and instruction needs to decide whether evening students are entitled consideration in:

   a) scheduling of courses so that programs can be completed entirely through evening classes. (day students might even take an evening class now and then!)

   b) registration, bookstores and libraries could understand and accommodate the hours of evening students.

   c) department chairpersons, deans, vice presidents, bursars, registrars, placement officers, etc. as persons sometimes available during these students' college hours.

READING STRATEGIES OF ADULTS WHO ARE POOR READERS: A REVIEW OF SELECTED RESEARCH AND IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

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Reading Strategies of Adults Who Are Poor Readers: A Review of Selected Research and Implications for Practice

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A great deal is known about the needs and characteristics of the adult learner from the work of Knowles (1970), Cross (1981, Aslanian and Brickell (1980), and others. There is also a large body of information about the illiterate and semi-illiterate adult. Hunter and Harmon (1979) have discussed adult illiterates in terms of their competencies and school grade completion characteristics, their patterns of residence, their income and employment patterns, their age characteristics, and the extent of their involvement with the criminal justice system. This information is useful in planning and implementing programs for adults who want to learn to read, but as Hall and Coley (1975) point out, there is a lack of knowledge about reading in much of the reading instruction for adults.

There is a limited amount of empirically derived information specifically describing the reading behaviors of poor reading and illiterate adults. Since the mid 1970's, there have been a few studies which have attempted to identify the specific strategies employed by adults who are poor readers, and when appropriate to compare them with the strategies of both children and adult proficient readers. These studies are important and potentially useful in that they point to a number of similar reading strategies and attitudes among poor reading adults, which are different from those employed by proficient readers.

Review of Selected Research

Malicky and Norman (1982) investigated the nature of the reading strategies used by adult poor readers in an adult basic education setting. They looked at adult reading strategies prior to the beginning of instruction, as well as changes in strategies across time as the adult received instruction in reading. The three categories of the Reading Miscue Inventory (Goodman and Burke, 1972) were used to identify and measure the strategies employed by these adults. This instrument identifies three cue systems used by readers: graphophonic, syntactic and semantic. The eleven females and five males in the study were all receiving public assistance, were between 18 and 35 years of age, and were all reading below sixth grade level as measured by the Classroom Reading Inventory (1965). For each ten week instructional period the adults were pre-tested and post-tested on the silent reading section of the Classroom Reading Inventory, and separated into gain and no-gain groups on the criterion of a gain of one reader level in comprehension on that test. The oral reading section of the Classroom Reading Inventory was also given prior to and again at the close of each ten week program. The oral reading miscues were analyzed for each adult. It was found that the no-gain group adults entered the instructional program with a heavier reliance on graphophonic cues with more emphasis placed on attending to letters and single words than did the gain group (56.5% to 48.3%). Also, the no-gain group relied less on the syntactic system of the language to identify words than did the gain group (51.3% to 60.6%) at entry into the program. Yet the two groups differed little in their reliance on semantic cues at program entry (37.9% to 38.5% for the gain group). Two trends in changes in reading strategies used occurred across the treatment periods. First, greater changes in strategies occurred for the no-gain (in comprehension) group. This group decreased their reliance on graphophonic cues and increased their reliance on grammatical cues. Second, the no-gain group's profile of strategies at the time of the post-test became very much like that of the gain group at the time of the pre-test. The authors attributed these no-gain group changes to 1) time needed by this group to develop a balance in strategies commonly employed before they could make gains in comprehension, and 2) the instructional program which emphasized the interactive process between print and the reader's knowledge of language structure and word meaning.

Raisner (1978) in an earlier study found very similar results with a different sample. She investigated the oral miscues of 14 nonproficient adult readers enrolled in a state college and described the reading strategies they employed. These adult also relied heavily on graphophonic cues, but less heavily on syntactic cues than do children. They seemed to have learned that reading consists of pronouncing words, and did not seem to realize that all language knowledge can be applied to the reading process. It is likely that Raisner's sample of adults were better readers than the adults in the Malicky and Norman study, so comparisons should be made cautiously.

Two studies were found which relied upon self-reporting as a means of collecting data. These two studies employed the interview as a means of identifying the beliefs about reading held by adults and the strategies they employ when reading.

Gambrell and Heathington (1981) compared adult poor readers with proficient adult readers on a number of variables. The poor readers were 14 men and 14 women enrolled in a Right to Read Adult Academy Program, all reading at or below the fifth grade level as determined by an informal reading inventory. The proficient readers were all college juniors in a business administration curriculum. The poor readers responded to a structured interview prior to being involved in instruction, while the proficient readers responded to the same questions on a written questionnaire. Both groups were given the same introductory information orally. One of the variables measured was the adults' awareness of the structure of textual materials. Almost all of the proficient readers (96%) were able to describe one or more possible structures for a paragraph or story, while fewer than one-half (43%) of the poor readers indicated any knowledge of structure. These results held up even under probing of the poor readers. The adults' perceptions of purposes for reading were identified by asking them which they felt was easier, "word by word reading" or "reading for meaning." The adults who were good readers said reading for meaning is easier (89%), while less than one-half (43%) of the poor reading adults indicated that reading for meaning is easier. When perceptions of reading mode were questioned, a larger percentage of poor reading adults indicated that oral reading was faster than silent reading. Specifically, 36% of the poor readers indicated oral reading is faster, compared to 4% of the proficient readers who felt oral reading is faster. The proficient and poor readers in this study also differed in their understanding of the role of meaning in describing "good reading." Seventy percent of the proficient readers described a good reader a someone who understand what is read, can comprehend, or who can relate what is read to his or her own experiences, while only 21% of the poor readers gave meaning centered descriptions.

The poor readers more often responded with non-meaning centered descriptions such as "can pick our sounds," "practices a lot," or "reads quickly." When inquiring into the readers' strategies used to resolve comprehension failure, the investigators ask, "when you are reading, what do you do if you don't know a word." Approximately one-third of the poor readers were unable to indicate even one independent strategy. They often said "they would ask someone" or "they didn't know". All of the proficient readers suggested one or more strategies such as "use context", "sound it out," or "see what will fit." To review, the poor readers and the proficient readers differed significantly on all the variables described above; knowledge of text structure, perceptions of word-by-word reading versus reading for meaning, understanding of reading mode, definitions of good reading, and strategies for identifying an unknown word. However, there were a number of variables on which the two groups did not differ significantly. Both groups believed that they would be able to read a story that interested them faster and it would be easier to remember than a story that did not interest them. Also, both proficient readers and poor readers believed that a story about a place they had visited would be easier to read than a story about a place they had not been.

Keefe and Meyer (1980) also interviewed adults to determine their perceptions about reading. They studied 100 adult disabled readers, defined as reading lower than fifth grade level on a number of standardized tests. They characterized adult readers as fitting one of three models; phonics, whole words, or meaning making. The authors reported almost 85% of the disabled readers in their study described reading as sounding out words (phonics) or identifying words (whole words), while only 15% approached reading as a meaning making process. It turned out that those in the 15% later made greater gains in adult basic education programs than did the other 85%.

These studies seem to point to a number of conclusions. First many poor adult readers tend to employ reading strategies which rely largely on graphophonic cues, and little on syntactic and semantic cues. These adult may be characterized as "word bound." That is, they approach reading as identifying single words, and they devote little or no attention to the syntactic and semantic relationships among words in text. This is in contract to proficient adult readers who approach reading more as a process of making meaning and who rely more heavily on syntactic cues when reading. Second, poor readers and proficient readers perceive reading as quite a different process in that they differ measurably in describing good readers, the structure of textual material, their preferences for reading mode and their techniques for identifying an unknown word.

Implications for Practice

While the findings of the four studies reviewed here do seem to support each other in describing the strategies of the poor adult reader, they do not explain why poor adult readers rely on different strategies than proficient adult readers. When the reasons for these differences are more clearly identified the implications for teaching adults to read may become easier to describe and respond to. However, a number of tentative implications should be noted for further consideration.

It may be that those adults who rely heavily on the graphophonic cue system simply need time to move to a more balanced utilization of the three cue systems, graphophonic, syntactic and semantic. Regular, continuous gains in reading achievement may not be realistic for all adult beginning readers. However, some adult reading students who depend heavily upon the graphophonic cue system might profit a great deal from instructional programs which focus on the interactive and communicative nature of the reading process. Such program should include methodologies which encourage the adult learner to apply all of his or her available language knowledge to textual materials. Selected methodologies which might lend themselves to these needs include the language experience approach (Kennedy and Roeder, 1975), and various cloze procedures (Bacon, 1983). Reader fluency building techniques might include procedures such as repeated readings (Samuels, 1979), taped readings (Chomsky, 1978), and assisted readings (Hoskisson, 1979). Comprehension improvement methods could incorporate techniques of pre-reading prediction and post-reading confirmation (Bacon, 1983), out of context word sentences (Keefe, Meyer and Lindberg, 1982), and teacher "think aloud" practices (Davey, 1983).

The two studies reviewed here which relied on the interview for data collection suggest a relationship between metacognitive awareness and reading behavior. If reading behavior is somehow related to what one thinks about reading, then it may be important to incorporate instruction about reading as a process into adult literacy programs. Such topics as the structure of textual material, the purposes for reading, understanding of silent reading as different from oral reading, and what constitutes good reading might be included.

Finally, if the particular cue systems relied upon by the reader is the critical variable in reading success among adults, then assessment and diagnostic practices in adult basic education programs should include measures which can identify the cues the individual relies upon when reading.

Needed Research

If the technique of reader miscue analysis is to prove useful in identifying the reading strategies of adults, then the procedure should be investigated for its predictive value with large numbers of adults.

While the studies reviewed here do seem to point to the use of different cues systems by proficient and poor readers, they do not address the nature of the development of the proficient reader. Such questions as the following need to be addressed. Do most proficient readers first develop the use of graphophonic cues then reverse their emphasis or do proficient readers approach reading from the beginning as the making of meaning? If a shift in emphasis does occur is this shift the result of time passing or is the shift the result of instruction? The answers to these and other questions may add support to the assumption that the pedagogy of teaching reading to children is not entirely appropriate for teaching adults to read.

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THE SUBJECT-MATTER OF ADULT EDUCATION:
THE PHENOMENOLOGY OF ADULT EDUCATION AS RIGOROUS HUMAN SCIENCE

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The Subject-matter of Adult Education:
The Phenomenology of Adult Education as Rigorous Human Science

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Introduction

Almost anything goes into and passes for the theory and practice of adult education today. One authority has stated:

> Adult education includes all the activities with an educational purpose that are carried on by people outside the ordinary business of life (Hallenbeck, 1955).

Another authority has argued:

> [Adult education is] an educational program that is planned and organized to assist adults in meeting their responsibilities as individuals and as members of society (Sworder, 1955).

These two definitions are sufficient to suggest that adult education is defined in the most "elusive, ambiguous, contradictory, and perplexing" terms (Apps, 69). Operationally defined, adult education theory and practice are whatever persons who call themselves adult educators (or who are labelled this by others) say or do as experts, professionals, or specialists. Truly, there may be many mansions in adult education as constructed and practiced, but most--as theory--are built upon foundations of sand shifting with the waves of fashionable but fleeting practices. Practices have preceded and unreflectively dictated theories almost exclusively. This particular asymmetrical relationship of practice and theory is not always bad, but practices should be under constant examination. This examination, however, always invokes reflection, and reflection necessarily occurs within a theoretical framework. Therefore, it is sometimes better that a theory precede practice. But it is always best that theories and practices relevant to each other be consistent with one another.

Relevant and productive research in adult education requires that the theory and practice of adult education be consistent with each other. If the research is fitting, pertinent, and applicable to the study of and the leadership of adults, it is all the more likely to bring forth desired results and to lead to additional--and initially unforeseen--problems and research programs. Theory and practice stand or fall together within the specific circumstances of well-formed projects.

It is frequently difficult to tell what relevant research or productive research is in adult education because a large number of special methodological problems remain unresolved at the core of what adult education is perceived to be. I discuss several of these from a phenomenological perspective. These include the questions of whether adult education is a discipline, whether it has a subject-matter, and how it is defined in theories appropriate to it and in the light of its practices.

In this paper I (1) argue that although adult education is not a discipline, it does have a definable subject-matter; (2) present a strategy for moving from current operationalizing definitions of what adult education is to a normative definition of what it is in theory and practice; (3) state and clarify this normative definition of the subject; and (4) show how adult education thereby may be seen as the paradigm of rigorous human science.

Adult Education and the Conception of a Discipline

It has been customary (although grossly misleading) to distinguish between "physical" sciences such as physics and "social" sciences such as economics and to claim that all sciences are included in one or another of these classifications. In addition, it is fashionable to distinguish as "humanities" other kinds of studies such as philosophy. The problem is that theories and practices of adult education do not fit into any of these classifications. They are "disciplines," but is adult education a discipline?

Answering this question in the affirmative requires that the education of adults (and even adult learning per se) be addressed as the training of physical, mental, and/or moral powers of adult persons through instruction, control, exercise, and the inculcation of good habits. It also requires accounts of the state or condition of orderly conduct resulting from this systematic training, or accounts of the states of order and control which result from this instruction. As a discipline, adult education would be considered a branch of knowledge or instruction.

Clearly, adult education is not a discipline. This conclusion significantly disposes of a large number of methodological problems. For example, adult educators no longer should feel guilty about, or be censured for, "not being scientific enough," or be duty bound to have their research conform to one or another of the "hard" or "soft" sciences, or attempt to imitate one of these, or have their most relevant and crucial research methods or programs be dictated by one of these or by one of the"humanities" disciplines.

The Subject-matter of Adult Education

Does adult education have a subject-matter? A subject-matter is the "matter" operated upon in an act or process, or the "matter" or phenomena out of which something is created. It is material for public discourse or public expression in language. A subject-matter is anything with which thought, deliberation, or discussion is concerned. It is anything treated or dealt with in reflective ways, or that with which a science deals, even a body of facts or ideas with which a study is concerned.

Adult education does indeed have a clear and distinct subject-matter, one which literally stares us in the face. But trees have obscured the presence of the forest. Because practices customarily have preceded theories and theory-building in unreflective ways, adult educators have never clearly formulated their essential subject-matter and its structures. Consequently, they have either not founded their disparite practices in consistent philosophical theories at all, or they have done so only in piecemeal and logically inconsistent ways. The principal reason why they have done so is that they have selected different kinds and degrees of phenomena unreflectively as more relevant than others. And what scales of relevance have they used?

Elias and Merriam (1980) have offered a rich and useful account of the major philosophical directions adult educators have taken. They call these philosophies of adult education: "liberal," "progressive," "behaviorist," "humanist," "radical," and "analytical" philosophies. Each of these positions is an attempt at conceptual clarity, coherence, and consistency in the application of its concepts, but this is the special focus of the "analytic" approach. Each position shows how its relevant data emerge from circumscribed concerns, but behaviorism is a deliberate reductionism carefully explored. Each position seeks some kind of change among people, whether the change is personal, community-based, or more global, but "liberal," "progressive," and "radical" adult education clearly emphasize (even if in quite different ways) an overarching concern for effecting transformations. "Humanistic" adult education is person-centered and focuses on the active and voluntaristic cooperation of participants.

Considered as coordinate to one another in explanatory power, but mutually exclusive, each approach sometimes has been proclaimed normatively to be the philosophy of adult education with resolutions to all relevant problems (at least in principle). Clearly they each have drawn their most perspicuous insights from different sets of phenomena and have performed their most crucial experiments in the light of these differences. Clearly, however, all of their devotees claim to be dealing with persons in one way or another, although it is not always evident what essential structure of person or personhood is under investigation such that one approach can claim to be logically different from the others.

Suppose, however, that "adult education" is a generic concept rather than a class concept. A classification of the different kinds of philosophical foundations would give way to a phenomenological investigation of the phenomena presented by the thoughts and actions of persons, and this analysis would not be limited rigidly, or through mutual exclusions, to just one or another set of phenomena selected through one or another of these specific philosophical approaches. All phenomena manifested by persons initially would be equal candidates for investigation. Suppose, further, that person or personhood is the essential subject-matter of adult education. Not persons or people, but person or personhood.

Suppose that both the sense of an enduring self, the capacity for self-recognition, and the reflexive capacity for new, unfamiliar, and non-habitual acts and actions are among the essential structures of what we mean by person. Moreover, we note that in any rigorous scientific investigation the methods of investigation are educed, or flow from, the phenomena under investigation. In the most originative sense a science (scientia) is the systematic investigation of a determinate subject-matter. This is the full force of rigorous science.

If these suppositions are granted, a phenomenology of the essential structures of adult education uncovers a definition of adult education: adult education is the systematic investigation of the phenomena of person, specifically of the free and deliberate acts of conscious and responsible persons, whereby persons are afforded motives for acting.

Each of the principal philosophies of adult education identified by Elias and Merriam can be demonstrated to have distinctive, overlapive, and cooperative locations within the systematic investigation of person. Each one, when reflectively re-worked, and with consistent interfacings of its theories and practices, will be seen to be a phase of the investigation of the generic essence of adult education and will be better able to lay out its research programs. Although not a discipline, adult education does have a subject-matter; indeed, it has always had it, but adult educators have almost never formulated it clearly enough. Surely they have not done so in formal definitions of their work.

Adult Education as Rigorous Human Science

Affording motives, which is the reason-giving process, is crucial. (1) From the adult educator's perspective a person can be given a reason for acting. This means that either a person's actions can be understood in the light of certain reasons, or that a person may be given, and accepts as his/her own, reasons for acting. Or it may be both at once. Affording motives in this perspective means that reasons why are being given. (2) From the adult learner's perspective one may be given, and accept as his/her own, certain reasons for acting. Or it may mean that (s)he has educed her/his own reasons for acting. Affording motives in this perspective means that reasons for are being given.

Phenomenologists have long argued that there are kinds of studies which can be called "human sciences." A phenomenological investigation is always a human science. Moreover, a central claim of this paper is that adult education is the paradigm of rigorous human science. A human science is an orderly and systematic investigation and description of a person's (and persons') felt experiences of direct phenomena through the various forms in which selected and relevant phenomena may appear or be manifested. Realizing, evidencing, and certifying are three of the many possible ways in which we speak of our processes of awareness both of facts within our lifeworlds and of our commitments as persons. Within our adult lifeworlds we learn most fundamentally and lastingly through the assurances of facts situated within our commitments and beliefs. Facts within values; and values situating facts. Both of these flow inextricably through indeterminately long streams of time and space.

Conclusion

I have tried to show that although adult education is not a discipline, it does have a subject-matter; that this subject-matter can be clearly defined; that this subject-matter can be systematically investigated such that adult education can be viewed as the paradigm of rigorous human science. If I have succeeded in showing this, the implications for research are immense. Not the least of these implications is that adult educators, in investigating person, assist in providing reasons for the actions of others and for their own actions, and thereby lead us all toward enriched understanding of person and consequently of the actions which have been taken or could be taken by persons.

I know of no "discipline" in which the subject-matter comes to be more enriched for personal uses whereby persons become transformatively empowered to assume greater charge of their own destinies than within the practices of adult education located within this normatively conceived scientific foundation.

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CONTINUING EDUCATION FOR PART-TIME FACULTY IN HIGHER EDUCATION:

AN AGENDA FOR RESEARCH

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CONTINUING EDUCATION FOR PART-TIME FACULTY IN HIGHER EDUCATION:

AN AGENDA FOR RESEARCH

One of the fastest growing parts of the higher education work force over the past decade has been the adjunct, or part-time faculty person. Since 1972, this part-time work force has increased 50% while the full-time segment of the instructional work force was increasing only 9%. At many institutions, especially community colleges, the part-time faculty now outnumber full-time faculty. More likely than not, these faculty members are teaching at extension sites, in the evening, and deal predominately with adults returning to higher education, rather than the traditional college-aged learner. The number of adults 35 years and older enrolled in degree programs increased by 66% between 1972 and 1978, (U. S. Bureau of Census, 1979 b). In addition, the National Center for Educational Statistics predicts that part-time students will rise to 48% of the collegiate student body by 1986--up from 39% a decade earlier (Frankel, 1978).

During the fall of 1983, there were 4.8 million students enrolled in community colleges alone. One would assume that because of the nature of these institutions an even larger percentage of older adults than the national higher education average would constitute their student populations. If only 48% of the enrollees were part-time adults that would equal over two million adults taking classes in community colleges alone. With these staggering numbers one can see the size and complexity of the problem.

A review of the research on continuing education programs for part-time faculty reveals, however, that dealing with the adult learner has not been a thrust of these programs. Rather, programs have centered on ways to integrate the part-time faculty member into the institution, and the improvement of instruction in general.

Few studies exist that attempt to compare the effectiveness of development programs designed to evaluate a number of strategies and their success with orienting the part-time faculty person to the institution in the most effective way possible. Most of the research consists of surveys of attitudes, testimonials, and speculation. In integrating the part-time individual into the total college setting, Albert and Watson (1980) found that many of the programs emphasized only a basic orientation designed to mainstream these individuals into the overall instructional work force. These programs provided the individual with information about the institution and the kind of job that was expected of them. Other writers (McDougle, 1980) indicate that many of the orientation programs are aimed at making the new instructor aware of his or her surroundings, and aware of the minimal expectations of the institution. Based on the assumption that any part-time staff development program is aimed at improving the teacher's instructional effectiveness, factors that negatively affect the teaching process must be considered. McDougle (1980) indicates that it is important for programs to be designed to get the full- and part-time faculty together in order to allow the part-time person the opportunity to develop a sense of identity with the particular program, as well as the school. Part-time individuals have a tendency to see the course they are teaching as separate from the total curriculum in that area.

Critics of the part-time group say a lack of institutional orientation and understanding of the overall program allows part-time faculty to aim their instruction at too low a level for college students. These individuals also charge that part-time faculty require fewer class requirements to prepare students effectively for future classes. (Cottingham, et al., 1981). This discussion also indicates that workshops, newsletters, and departmental memorandum were used to increase part-time instructor effectiveness. Pima College in Arizona has produced a handbook, Survival Skills for Part-Time Faculty, (Cottingham, et al., 1981) which attempts to clarify in written form the informational and skill needs which cause the most anxiety and ineffectiveness on the part of the part-time group. The Peralta Community College Development Project is also described. This program is designed around peer teaching and learning consultants whose role is designed to serve the parttime person as a bridge between that faculty person and the college. These individuals are available to give simple instructional advice as well as serve the institution in visiting the part-time class to provide the part-time instructor with feedback concerning the actual teaching experience.

Friedlander (1979) found that programs should be designed to make part-time faculty more aware of the institution's support services available to them. These part-time individuals were less aware of campus activities and how to access instructional support programs, but much more likely to express a need for interaction with colleagues and administrators. Long (1978) conducted a survey to determine the professional development interests and attitudes of 125 part-time instructors. The results of this survey indicated that these individuals rated keeping abreast of new discipline developments and gaining greater depth of knowledge as their most important professional development needs. He draws the conclusion that these programs need common goals coordinated with the institution and the part-time instructor groups. In addition, a wide variety of experiences need to be provided, and the programs provided via surrounding institutions should be investigated in order to provide these staff with stimulating development activities.

Most of the available literature suggests that programs designed to orient the part-time faculty group with the institution will prove beneficial for both the employee group and the institution. Studies basically consisting of surveys designed to elicit information from these individuals have been the predominant way of obtaining the information necessary to develop these programs. The available literature does little to confirm what should actually be a part of these programs other than to indicate that instructional improvement should always be foremost in the minds of the program developers. It appears that the primary benefit of these programs has been the apparent mainstreaming of the part-time faculty group into the institutional mainstream.

Instructional improvement programs designed to assist part-time faculty, have received a great deal of attention in the literature over the past few years. Many of these programs have received support from student groups as a means of weeding out the instructors that are not meeting the needs of these students. The literature, however, does not provide us with information concerning to what extent student's grades and faculty ratings are related, or to what extent faculty evaluation actually improves instruction. Between 1954 and 1974, 28 studies involving over 70,000 student ratings of faculty in over 50 college and universities were published (Parsons, 1979). These studies indicated that there are essentially three methods being used to evaluate *full- and part-time instructors: determining teacher characteristics, assessing performance, and measuring student outcomes (Sanchez, 1978). Tolle (1970, p. 6) notes, however, that objective measures of teacher effectiveness have yet to be developed: "every study still seems to end with a recommendation that even more work be carried out to identify the criteria that should be used to evaluate instructional effectiveness."*

Since the early 1970's, a number of researchers have concerned themselves with identifying criteria that would assist in developing effective evaluation programs. Many of these documents describe efforts to evaluate faculty using student and faculty surveys (Palmer, 1981). Rhode Island Junior College developed a survey evaluation instrument to determine what items should be included in order to effectively evaluate faculty performance (Menard, 1975). Other efforts to identify evaluation criteria through surveys have been described by Minuk (1981). A pre- and post-test study dealing with student expectations in social science classes was conducted to determine if the expectations a student had entering specific courses affected their evaluation of instruction after the course had been completed. Statistically significant differences were found between expectations and evaluations in classes where the end of course evaluations were high (Calistra, 1972). Cooper (1977) found that the degree of satisfaction the teacher has for the teaching profession is positively related to how students perceive that instructor in the classroom. It was also determined that if the teacher viewed community support for what was being taught in a negative manner, that teacher would not be considered as favorably by students as the instructor that felt wide community support existed.

Hampton (1982) designed a study to determine adult learner perceptions of the success of part-time faculty based on the instructor's use of androgogical teaching strategies in the learning situation. Variables used to determine success were student ratings of teacher effectiveness and the student dropout rate. This study indicated that the use of these androgogical strategies affected the perceptions of the students regarding the competence of the instructor in a positive way. If students were involved in the learning experiences, their evaluations of the instructor were always more positive. However, studies aimed at determining the effectiveness of other student evaluations systems have received some negative comments. A study conducted by Bers (1977) concerning an analysis of the student evaluation form used with the part-time faculty showed that the instrument failed to discriminate clearly between the positive and negative aspects of items like course organization and faculty performance. The positive wording of the document might also affect positively the student responses rather than the performance of the instructor. When studies of this type are conducted in the future, it appears important that the philosophy of the evaluation system be explained for the reader before generalizing the results.

This focus on instructional improvement arises, in part, from the fear that part-time faculty are not as good as, or not equal to, "regular" full-time faculty. Brown (1976, p. 310) stated, "Community colleges must obtain their fame and recognition because of the quality of their teaching. To obtain this quality of instruction, the makeup of the faculty is crucial. Ultimately, the quality of the faculty will determine the character of the institution itself." In dealing with the instructional quality issue little direct research was found that compared the part-time faculty person to the full-time faculty person. However, Friedlander (1980) points out that "Few if *any studies have been conducted to determine whether, in general, students who enroll in courses taught by adjunct faculty receive instruction inferior to that offered by full-time instructors."*

Much of the literature that ~~is~~ available attempts comparisons using obscure devices of measurement in their comparisons. Friedlander (1980) himself employed eleven criteria of teaching effectiveness to differentiate between part- and full-time faculty. These criteria ranged from teaching experience to involvement in professional development activities. He found that part-time faculty differed from their full-time counterparts on several criteria. Perhaps because of the criteria used. The study, however, is inconclusive with regard to actual instructional effectiveness.

Another study that attempted to get at the part-time versus full-time issue centered around the use of instructional resources as a measure of effectiveness (Lolley, 1980). The results, based on the responses of over 100 full- and part-time teachers at a community college in Texas, showed that these part-time teachers used instructional media, and other instructional techniques at least as frequently as their full-time counterparts.

A study described by Willett (1980) compared the effectiveness of part-time faculty versus full-time faculty using three effectiveness dimensions. These were: 1) student ratings of teaching effectiveness, 2) course retention ratios, and 3) subsequent student achievement in advanced courses. These criteria more clearly reflect what should be effective criteria in demonstrating quality teaching. Most educators would agree that should the instructor fare well when being evaluated by these criteria they would probably be fairly successful in the classroom regardless of whether that individual is a part-time or full-time instructor. Other researchers, including Karth (1979) have used evaluative instruments completed by participants as indicators of teaching competence. However, the other research studies did not combine variables, and compare part-time faculty with full-time faculty using a variety of variables. Willett found that there was no significant difference between full- and part-time faculty on student evaluation findings, course retention ratios, or these student's subsequent grades in advanced courses.

Cruise (et al. 1980) used three evaluation instruments to compare part-time versus full-time teachers. These evaluation instruments were student evaluation of teachers, teacher self-evaluation, and administrator evaluation of teachers. While there were some differences on individual items, on the three evaluative instruments used, there was no statistically significant difference between the two groups using the Mann-Whitney test to determine significance. The author uses this data to suggest that part-time faculty are just as effective as full-time, at a lower cost. The author generalizes that because this has been found, an effect will be felt that will have a broad impact on institutional employment policies. The author does clarify this statement when it is suggested that additional studies should be conducted before wide generalization can be made. This study, although using some excellent criteria to make comparisons, has not used a wide enough sample to make the sweeping judgments found in the summary. Some of the data collected could form an effective starting point for future studies.

Thus, it appears that in this area of comparing the instructional competence of the part-time faculty member with the full-time faculty member, *a great deal of additional study should take place before any positive indication of whether the use of part-time individuals really affect an institution's instructional quality in a negative or positive way. It is therefore important that research into how part-time faculty are evaluated and the kinds of programs geared to improve their effectiveness should be studied.*

In summary, the literature on continuing education for part-time faculty reveals that the major thrust of programs has been on either mainstreaming part-time faculty into the institution, or improving instruction. Along with the instructional focus has been an interest in comparing part-time faculty to full-time faculty. Only one study was found that measured the impact of part-time instructors' use of andragogical teaching strategies.

It would seem that little thought has gone into what continuing education programs for part-time faculty should contain. The assumptions underlying present practice--that this group needs to improve instruction and needs to be integrated into the institution--have not been examined, let alone supported by any concrete data. The fact that programs sensitizing part-time faculty to their largely adult student clientele are either nonexistent, or form only a small part of a staff development, further suggests the cavalier nature of this phenomenon. Clearly, more thought needs to go into continuing education programs for part-time faculty. A careful analysis of the largely adult population being served by this group, of the needs of the institutions that employ part-time faculty, and most importantly, the needs of part-time faculty members themselves, all need to be investigated more thoroughly before meaningful continuing education program for part-time faculty can be designed.

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Adult Educators and Locus of Control in Teaching

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Adult Educators and Locus of Control in Teaching

The literature of adult education has consistently reiterated the principle of learner control in the teaching-learning process. The teaching of adults has been considered by a number of educators as an effort quite different from the teaching of children. Malcolm Knowles (1970), who is credited with popularizing the term and concept "androgogy" to describe "the art and science of helping adults learn" (p. 38), believes that because of the more diverse life experiences of adults, their educational needs and most effective ways of learning differ from those of children. He advocates instruction which recognizes the learners' self-directed natures, reservoirs of life experiences, developmental stages, and needs for knowledge which has immediate relevancy.

The necessity for considering the unique character of the adult learner and the need for a learner centered environment as opposed to a teacher centered one has been one of the main tenets of the adult education literature. Carol Hoare (1982), summarizing future recommendations of participants in the National Adult Education Think Tank Project, stated that the role of the educator must shift "to that of advocate-facilitator and resource person" (p. 63). Successful education of adults will be contingent, according to Hoare, on a changed role relationship in which the student has the principal share in both the planning and the implementation of his or her program of study.

We must wonder to what extent these views of teaching and the assumptions about the older learner are shared by practitioners in different educational settings. Do educators believe that their students should control their learning processes, and do they apply the principle of learner control in their teaching practices?

K. Patricia Cross (1981), a writer of unusual insight, implies that there may be inconsistencies between the literature of adult education and the experience of instructors. In Adults as Learners she states "the androgogical assumption that calls for treating adults as though they are self-directing while children are not--or at least treating adults as though they were more self-directing than children--flies in the face of the experience of many teachers who have worked with dependent adults and independent children" (p. 238).

Many instructors in adult education have reported that some of their students are very uncomfortable with the non-traditional approach to education. It may not only be unfamiliar, but even unacceptable to older students. Laurel Luehrig (1983) describes the resistance which may occur when adult students find that traditional techniques are not being used in their classes. She states that "the instructor who tries to follow the literature's admonitions to 'facilitate' rather than 'teach'. . . often is faced not only with numerous institutional constraints, but also with determined resistance from the very same adults whose preferences and needs are reportedly best met through such practices" (p. 8). She says that despite documentation in the literature regarding such resistance, it has been dismissed as temporary in nature, and, or, characteristic of a particular student population. She believes that dislike of non-traditional practices has been considered to be an aberration which simply needs to be overcome by the knowledgeable adult educator.

The research to be reported here involved an examination of teaching styles of a diverse group of adult educators in order to consider how these teachers perceived their roles and how they believed they should and did relate to their adult students. The results of the research cast some doubts on whether the individual who is in the field educating adults necessarily views his or her role as "advocator-facilitator and resource person."

One hundred seventy-three educators in four different adult education settings (a four year college, two community colleges, a compensatory education program, and two continuing education programs) were in the study sample. All of these educators lived and worked in a large midwestern metropolitan area. The educators responded to a survey instrument which incorporated questions regarding personal and situational information, and perceptions of ideal and perceived teaching styles with an objective instrument called "The Brostrom Teaching Style Inventory" (1979). This inventory is a forced-choice instrument which yields scores on four different dimensions of teaching orientations. These "styles" have been designated by Brostrom as "behaviorism," "structuralism," "functionalism," and "humanism". The Inventory presents the respondent with 15 stem phrases, each with four completion statements. These statements, each representing an aspect of one of the particular styles, are ranked by the respondent.

The four styles are viewed in terms of their philosophic positions regarding locus of control in the teaching-learning process. Behaviorism and structuralism are considered to be high in external control--behaviorism implying control exerted by the nature of the learning material and structuralism being characterized by a highly controlling instructor. Humanism and functionalism, on the other hand, are considered to be styles in which the learner has control both in planning and executing his own learning activities.

If adult educators really believe that learner control is of paramount importance, one would expect to find that humanism and functionalism are consistently preferred over behaviorism and structuralism. However, this study found that such was not the case. Behaviorism and humanism were almost equally preferred. It was found, though, that structuralism, the style characterized by high instructor control, was consistently the least preferred choice of the educators.

An analysis of the items most often selected from the choices provided by the Brostrom Instrument showed that certain aspects of behaviorism and humanism were particularly widely approved by the educators. They favored the humanistic responses which indicated a preference for highly motivated and active students, and they endorsed the idea that an educator should serve as a model and a long-term influence on students. There were two behaviorist items which drew wide approval from respondents. The first of these was support for evaluation which is a built-in feature of the teaching program and which provides on-going feedback to students. The second was endorsement of practice and repetition as conditions in effective learning.

The most highly rejected item on the whole inventory was a structuralist one dealing with the ideal teacher. Respondents overwhelmingly rejected the idea that learners wanted an instructor who would offer them systematic guidance "step by step."

Significant differences were found in the preferred styles of the educators in the four different educational settings. Community college instructors favored structuralism and behaviorism, both high in instructor control, more than did any of the other groups of educators. They favored humanism significantly less than the others. The respondents from the four year college and the compensatory education programs showed the highest degree of preference for humanism. There were very slight differences among the four groups regarding support for the functionalist style.

In addition, it was found that gender exerted a strong effect on style preferences. In the total sample, women favored the styles which featured learner control far more than did the men. When the sample was stratified by institutional setting, though, gender differences were not found for the four year college and community college groups. They were found for the other two groups; the compensatory educators and the continuing educators, with women showing much higher preference for humanism than did the men.

Differences in preferred styles were also found to be affected by the educators' own disciplinary fields and by the subject matter of the courses they were teaching. Those individuals educated in the fields classified as "codified" (sciences, technical subjects, and business) differed greatly from those in the "non-codified" fields (liberal arts, social sciences, creative arts, and education) on all four styles.* As might be expected, the persons in non-codified fields preferred styles high in learner control. The effect of disciplinary field on preference for humanism was particularly strong; humanism was much more highly favored by the non-codified group.

While subject matter of the course being taught was shown to effect style preference, it was not as strong a factor as disciplinary field, showing effects only at the .05 level on functionalism and humanism.

The effect of disciplinary field on men's and women's style preferences was of note. In codified fields, gender differences almost disappeared, while they remained strong for educators in the non-codified fields. It would appear that education in the sciences may serve to break down some beliefs and practices where distinctions between men and women have traditionally existed.

The effects of the subject matter being taught on gender differences in style preferences existed for both codified and non-codified subject matter groupings. However, they were stronger in the codified areas than in the non-codified ones. The fact that a number of educators who came from non-codified fields were engaged in teaching codified subject matter probably accounted for some of this variance.

Of particular interest were some of the findings which showed lack of significance. Given the literature's emphasis on the differences between pedagogy and androgogy, one might have expected to find educators who had been trained as teachers of children and/or who had had experience teaching children showing preference for styles which were strong in instructor control. Such was not the case. Experience in pedagogy appeared to exert no effect whatever on choices of style.

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* These distinctions between fields were established by Thomson, Hawkes, and Avery (1969).

There are a number of studies in the higher education field which suggest that older, more experienced educators tend to become more interested in their students as human beings and to provide increasing opportunities to their students for self-direction (Baldwin, 1979; Hodgkinson, 1974; Axelrod, 1980). It might have been expected that the style preferences of the educators in the present study might have shown effects of age and length of experience as adult educators. An increase in preference for humanism and functionalism might have been anticipated. Contrary to expectation, though, no significant effects of age or of length of adult teaching experience on style were found to exist.

The results of this research suggest that adult educators generally do not favor strong instructor control of the teaching-learning process. The structuralist style proved to be the least highly regarded style, confirming findings of Moore (1981) who used the Brostrom Instrument in a study of adult educators at the University of Georgia. However, educators do not reject teaching styles in which control is exerted by the nature of the subject matter (behaviorism), and they particularly endorse aspects of this style, such as emphasis on planning, evaluation, and practice. They favor some aspects of humanism, such as emphasis on active students and on instructors dedicated to serving as models and long-term influences on their students. They definitely do not favor an educational system totally directed by the student. Their lack of endorsement of certain of the humanistic items stressing total autonomy of the student indicates a belief in the importance they attach to some element of structure and organization in the learning program.

Findings of significant difference among educators in the four different settings would seem to demand further investigation. For example, what aspects of the community college account for the higher preference of the instructor for structuralism? What factors in the two higher education settings (the four year college and the community college) might account for the absence of gender differences found so prominantly in the compensatory and continuing education groups in style preferences of these educators.

The whole issue of gender differences in style preferences would seem to have considerable implications for the field of adult education. If, indeed, men and women differ in the importance they place on locus of control in the teaching-learning process, may there be situations in which teaching outcomes are affected by the sex of a particular instructor? Should sex of the instructor be considered in planning for specific groups of learners? What significance, if any, can be attached to the findings showing that women's preferred styles conform more to the recommendations of the adult education theorists than do those of men?

Questions abound! There is surely a need for considerable further research on the whole issue of teaching styles in adult education.

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CONCEPTS CRUCIAL TO UNDERSTANDING NONLITERATE AMERICAN ADULTS

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CONCEPTS CRUCIAL TO UNDERSTANDING NONLITERATE AMERICAN ADULTS

PROBLEM STATEMENT AND METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

This study is a search for concepts. "A concept," states Kerlinger in his definitive work on behavioral research, "expresses an abstraction formed by generalization from particulars." (Kerlinger, p. 28) In The Elements of Social Scientific Thinking, Hoover describes concepts as: "(1) tentative, (2) based on agreement, and (3) useful only to the degree that they capture or isolate some significant and definable item in reality." (Hoover, p. 21) The concepts reported in this study were arrived at by generalization from the words and actions of 17 nonliterate American adults in conversation with the researcher. Coming from a sample of only 17, they are of course tentative. To secure agreement, they were reviewed in their formative stages by a jury of five of the original contributors and by colleagues of the researcher. Their usefulness cannot be assured within the study; it is by their usefulness that the study will be judged.

In the United States, federal and state governments are concerned that available funding for Adult Basic Education programs should be used primarily for those in greatest need of training, adults who have a minimal level of reading and writing skills. There are very low recruitment and retention rates in American programs for literacy training; learning rates are not known. The purpose of this study is to provide concepts for use in developing theory to support effective programs in literacy training for adults.

Adult literacy training is one form of the intellectual skills training discussed by R. J. Sternberg. Sternberg's first two criteria for a sound program of intellectual skills training are the following:
"1. The program should be based on a theory of intellectual performance...
2. The underlying theory of intellectual performance should be socioculturally relevant to the individuals who are exposed to the training program..."

Sternberg goes on to suggest that the starting point for the creation of culturally appropriate interventions is the investigation of implicit theories of intelligence in a target population. "By IMPLICIT is meant those theories that people create for themselves but do not formally express and that are not plainly apparent. ...The goal of research on implicit theories of intelligence is to DISCOVER the informal, tacit concepts within a given population." (Sternberg, p. 8)

As a practitioner involved in basic education for adults, the researcher is concerned to discover the implicit theories of intelligence held by the population for whom her program and others like it are intended. Who is this population? It is the population described by Hunter and Harman as Groups 2 and 3 in their four broad categories of educationally disabled Americans (p. 111,112). Unlike Group 1, members of this population lack not only educational credentials but actual skills. With a reading level between 0 and 4, they are not ready to study for eighth grade proficiency; much less for the GED. They are differentiated from members of Group 4, on the other hand, by the presence of hope and a sense of vitality in their lives. They are not the hard-core stationary poor.

To discover some of the informal, tacit concepts that make up the implicit theory of intelligence held by a group of Americans who do not read and write, the researcher followed the design of the discovery of grounded theory developed by Glaser and Strauss. With the help of personnel in the California Youth Authority, Westminster Neighborhood Association Incorporated in Watts, the Torrance Adult Basic Education Program and Georgia's Floyd and Polk County Social Services, she found 17 nonliterate adults who would speak with her.

Conversations with the 17 adults who contributed to the study are described in Appendix A. The contributors differ demographically: six are male, eleven female; six are black, one Chicano, ten Caucasian; their ages are approximately 18, 19, 20, 21, 32, 34, 35, 37, 38, 44, 45, 46, 47, 50, 50, 56, 67; two are from rural Georgia, three from small cities in Georgia, three from Los Angeles, three from Torrance, two from Gardena, and one each from Carson, Palos Verdes, Harbor City, and Lomita, suburbs of Los Angeles that vary widely in culture and in economic level. Contributors differ in personality as strikingly as they do in demographics. In their relations with the researcher Napoli was gregarious and outoing, Clove passive and protective, Crawford motherly and straightforward, Garcia awkward and demanding, Robinson serious and suave, Pania pleasant and shy. They differ in terms of worldly success: McLucas and Selman rate themselves low on the success scale, while Napoli and Cairns rate themselves high and would be rated high by most standards of wealth and accomplishment, owning their own homes and carrying on their own businesses while maintaining a sound family base.

Two sets of transcriptions provided the data for this study, transcriptions of individual contributors' conversations with the researcher and transcriptions of five selected contributors in discussion as a reliability jury.

FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

The data are included in the report as Appendix B. They consist of contributors' statements grouped by the researcher into categories. Categories were chosen that would include everything that the contributors said during the conversations and would emphasize the themes that seemed most important to them.

The words of the contributors were arranged into 21 categories. Of these, five are concerned with active life experiences—their abilities, the alternatives they have developed to get along without literacy skills, indications of their implicit definitions of reading, their explicit learning styles, and the reasons they give for not having developed reading and writing skills. Four are concerned with personal feelings—isolation, shame, pride and life control. Four are concerned with human interaction—help they receive, special relationships they have developed, exposure of their problem to others, and their concept of the educated fool. Eight categories are concerned with the circumstances of the contributors' lives—type of work, size of family, state of health, view of their own wealth, influence of culture, experience of schools, paucity of vocabulary and weakness in understanding higher concepts.

Several general statements became obvious to the researcher as she analyzed the data by categories: every person differs from every other person; to every individual, a family is important; individuals tend to speak and act in ways that express and intensify their feelings of self-worth.

In these terms, the contributors were like literate Americans. They were demographically varied, they had a vital interest in their families, and they shared a common concern to present their strengths and not their weaknesses in their conversations with the researcher. As she continued to work with the data, the researcher sought concepts held by the contributors that might not be held by Americans who routinely read and write. If differentiating concepts beyond those immediately dependent upon literacy skills could be found, they might be useful to researchers seeking to understand the nonliterate population in the United States today.

PERMANENCY OF THE NONLITERATE POPULATION

It appears from the data that the contributors to this study believe themselves to be permanently nonliterate adults. If they are correct, the finding suggests that, for physiological, psychological or other reasons there are Americans who are not equipped to learn reading and writing skills in a school setting, just as there are Americans who are not equipped to move through university processes. The contributors believe that school is the place to learn reading and writing; they have failed in school; without some major change either in the teaching format or in themselves, there is no reason to expect a change in their nonliterate status.

On the whole, contributors reported that in adult literacy training programs they had found a supportive environment and had learned something about reading. But of the fourteen (82%) who had enrolled in a program, fourteen (100%) had dropped out. Only Wright stated that the program itself was unsatisfactory. Only Kelley, with a bad back, cited a specific external cause for his dropout. The contributors all view literacy skills as desirable and universally taken for granted. Why are they neither successful graduates nor continuing in a program learning to read and write? The data suggests that the fourteen contributors who tried literacy education as adults found it no more satisfactory in terms of transferable results than they had found elementary and high school training as children.

With the exception of Crawford and Selman, who have never attended literacy classes as adults, all of the contributors to this study demonstrated their own conviction that reading and writing are impossible for them to learn in school. Further research is needed to determine the statistical likelihood that they are correct.

NONLITERACY AS A HANDICAP

Although none of the contributors described themselves directly as "handicapped", their comments indicated that living in the United States today without the skills of reading and writing amounts to living with a handicap.

The American Heritage Dictionary defines "handicap" as "a deficiency, especially an anatomical, physiological, or mental deficiency that prevents or restricts normal achievement."

The contributors wonder what causes the deficiency that they describe as a reading problem. Several suggested that the cause might be physical, either genetic or environmental. One has considered using hypnotism to seek for an emotional cause.

Though uncertain of its basis, contributors all agreed that the handicap of nonliteracy restricted their lives. They did not say that literacy skills were necessary for satisfactory human relations, health or spiritual development. They reported restrictions in two areas, intellectual development and employment. Seven of the contributors indicated awareness that they suffered from lack of advanced vocabulary and the higher concepts that it permits, a vocabulary available to other people through reading. Three contributors said that neither reading nor writing was really necessary in their work: Garcia, a janitor; Long, a tailor; Crawford, a housekeeper. Four said that those skills were necessary: Pania, a worker in specialized eletronics assembly; Napoli, an auto body repair worker; Kelley, a machinist; and McLucas, a driver. Although they themselves could not do the required reading and writing, these four found ways to see that it was done, two without ever revealing their lack of skills.

As handicapped persons, contributors report that those who do not suffer from their problem can never fully understand their situation. Kelly said only those without an education really know how much an education means; only those who lack the ability to attain the norm fully appreciate the value of the norm. The contributors do not question the norm itself. They share with the general public the expectation that everyone should be able to read and write.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE FINDINGS

Two concepts have been drawn from the data of this study and presented as crucial to understanding nonliterate American adults, the concepts of permanency and of handicap. For each contributor, the concepts hold an individual, personal meaning. Taken all together, these individual meanings suggest that the United States may anticipate the presence of a permanent population of adults who, though otherwise normal, are handicapped by the inability to read and write.

If further research indicates that the concepts as reported here are accurate, implications for public policy may be considerable. Funding processes might be developed to support radically individualized, out-of-school ways to acquire literacy skills. Or public effort might be aimed more toward providing compensatory facilities to this group of handicapped Americans and less toward exhortation that they overcome their handicap.

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